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ART. I. *Observations on the Theory and Practice of Landscape Gardening.* Including some Remarks on Grecian and Gothic Architecture, collected from various Manuscripts in the Possession of the different Noblemen and Gentlemen for whose Use they were originally written: *the Whole tending to establish fixed Principles in the respective Arts.* By H. Repton, Esq. Large 4to. With many Plates. 5l. 5s. Boards. Taylor.

AMONG the many controversial publications which have appeared on the subject of Landscape Gardening, both inclination and reason unite in directing us to those productions which contain the practical ideas of an experienced Professor. Few subjects have met with more discussion, within a short period, than the one which is at present the object of our attention; and few, we are concerned to say, have been less satisfactorily elucidated. One author admires nature in all her wild luxuriance; while another, appalled by thorns and briars, prefers vegetation divested of its tangible terrors, and asserts that dressed grounds are more ornamental:—neither considering that these objects are alike delightful in their proper places, but, by neglecting to advert to the necessary disposition of each in order to answer the various demands of our wants and pleasures, exciting a controversy in which they have equally shewn an inattention to first principles. Had any of the inquiries been founded on these premises, they might have led to clearer conclusions.

The subject of landscape gardening is professedly the arrangement of grounds attached to a building that is destined for residence. Between the house and grounds, a relative connection must necessarily be maintained, corresponding with the three primary characters of isolated country dwellings. The first of these distinctions is the gentleman's residence, indicated, without respect to magnitude, by the disposition of the grounds for comfort and pleasure. The second is the farmer's residence; in whose vicinity, without a palpable violation of the rules of propriety, nothing can appear but what tends to promote a profitable account, as respecting both mecha-

nics and the produce of the soil. When unrestrained nature prevails on a farmer's land, that which might be a pleasing object in the first instance becomes a *dirty farm* in the second, and *vice versâ*. If it should be thought that both appearances may be combined about the residence of a *gentleman farmer*, a little attention to the subject will shew the impracticability of this idea. If the proprietor conducts the business as a farmer, his dwelling should be in the midst of the homestead, in order that the interesting operations of that place may be immediately under his watchful eye; one part of the mechanical arrangement must be contiguous to another, for the sake of greater advantage; and every yard of ground, devoted to picturesque scenery, will be applied to a loss. On the contrary, the homestead must be separated, and placed at some distance from what is to appear a gentleman's residence, and the former be consigned to the care of a superintendant in the character of a bailiff. Thus we see that the union of the farm-house and the gentleman's residence is decidedly very incompatible.

The third distinctive class is the humble cottage, usually stationed, for the convenience of its tenant, near the ordinary avocations of his labour; or contiguous to the objects placed under his care. This appropriation admits of nothing in its accompaniments but rustic nature: increase the dimensions, or dress the grounds, and the place becomes—what?—a mongrel production, affecting to belong to a poor occupier, but which cannot be maintained without a gentleman's estate.

Such are the strong lines of discrimination which indicate the character of the possessor. Any admixture is heterogeneous, and, as offending against propriety, is an evident mark of bad taste. The decorated cottage and the *ferme ornée* of magnificent cost become objects of ridicule, and serve only to expose the bad judgment of their owners and founders.

It is injurious to the investigation of general principles to multiply unnecessary distinctions. The Villa, Mansion, and Sporting Seat, are at most but varieties of the first class; each equally coming under the denomination of a gentleman's house. *Villa*, strictly speaking, is a general term for a country residence. The Mansion, in its original sense, signified a chief residence, and afterward the manor or lord's house; implying that it was the habitation of the proprietor of the surrounding lands, to distinguish it from others on the same estate; and the mansion or manor-house might therefore be larger or smaller, according to the opulence of the possessor. The Hunting Seat may occupy a station with those smaller houses of great proprietors, which are used only for occasional retreats; and for which an appellation is wanted in our language,

of equal signification with the Latin *villula*, or the Italian *casino*, to distinguish them from the chief residence. It will contain more or less of all that is desirable in a gentleman's dwelling, in proportion to the magnitude of the demesne, its local properties, and the circumstances and inclinations of the owner. The varieties of the first class, however much they may differ in scale, range under the same general principle, and form the particular object of the landscape gardener in the management of the grounds and surrounding scenery. In this pursuit, his first inquiry should be directed to the habits and occupations of the great landed proprietors of former times, in order to see how far the remains of their magnificence may be made conformable to modern customs and requisites.

In taking a view of the works of a remote period, when the *character* was most decidedly marked, it will be found to consist in *security;* which was then the most comfortable idea, and that which predominated in the mind of the proprietor. The entrance to the mansion was fortified; every aperture was barricadoed with iron; and the whole was surrounded by a high wall of defence. Where agriculture did not appear around the dwelling, a forest was the domain, and beyond the walls no labour seems to have been wasted in decoration; all was destined to produce a formidable appearance from without, and a concomitant seclusion was the result within. The habitation, we may reasonably suppose, was regarded less as combining the objects of pleasure, than as a place in which the baron and his guests might repose in confidence of its strength: for, in other respects, our forefathers, as we are taught, braved the open air much more than their modern descendants; they resorted to shelter when impelled by necessity, but otherwise their time was consumed abroad in sports of the field, or in feats of hardihood.

Sometimes a fortunate situation enabled them to preserve an opening to the outward view, when the building could be placed with one of its sides on the top of an inaccessible precipice; and, in many instances, it was furnished with a terrace overlooking the river which intersected or the impervious wood which filled the deep glen below, but still the main character was preserved. The broken rocks, the dangerous chasms, and the whole of the wild scenery attending the spot which we generally find selected, are peculiarly in character, and never fail to impress the mind of the beholder with the most solemn ideas.

Turning from scenes in which a portion of terror increased their sublimity, and taking a view of those which accompany modern customs, the contrast is very striking. Instead of the

peril of former times, amenity of manners now admits a free prospect of the surrounding scenery, and the allurements to sit within are numerous. It is therefore required by additional means to invite healthy recreation without. The grounds are to be accessible from almost every principal apartment of the house. Instead of the high wall of defence surrounding the mansion and its appendages, the boundary is now extended as far as the owner can afford to appropriate land to his pleasure; inclosed by a fence nowhere impassable with a little effort; and exhibiting at intervals a slight gate, with an attendant, to tell the passenger, "this is the road, if you wish to enter." Such are the effects of superior protection, afforded by the happy constitution under which we live.

The modern system of education, also, particularly promotes a disposition to sedentary occupations, and unfits a female (as well as in a great degree the other sex) for bearing much of the outward air, or for contending with natural roughness where prepared paths do not exist.

This investigation might include the periods of society between the two extremes; and although apparently exhibiting little more than a regular progression from the first to the last, it would eventually furnish a very interesting introduction to a work professedly treating on the subject of country residences, if executed with acute discriminations.

The character which a place of residence should possess, in order to accord with the quality of the inhabitant, forms the next consideration.

The man of taste, having the means of gratification in his power, will be desirous of retaining near him a portion of pure nature, untouched by the innovating hand of art. He will unite the useful and the ornamental for enjoyment; and these combinations will distinguish his residence from that of the indiscriminating and the necessitous. A little attention to the habits of modern times evinces that wild nature, hemming us in to the very door of the dwelling, is inadmissible: that comfort must not be sacrificed to the desire of scenes in a more natural state; and that the necessary accommodations now demand regularly disposed, clean, and convenient parts in the immediate vicinity of the house, in order that the inhabitant may venture out unannoyed by those obstructions which the nature of this climate would otherwise produce. The distance to which exercise in the open air will be extended, by delicate persons, is determined in a great measure by the appearance of the weather; and the more this is favourable, the farther will they be induced to ramble, and at times will wish to solace themselves with nature's wildest luxuriance. The true

principle of proceeding now becomes obvious: there should be a regular gradation from art to nature: the grounds and plantations immediately surrounding the house should be disposed for convenience and cheerfulness; and art should there be evident, to shew the care employed to keep them in that state. The distant parts, such as the lovers of picturesque beauty delight to contemplate, should be so united with near objects, as at once to satisfy the judgment and please the eye, without any violent transition from the one to the other. How far the appearance of art should extend needs not, in strict propriety, be regulated by the magnitude of the dwelling; though some little allowance may be due to that consideration. It is not the possession of a large mansion that renders the human frame capable of an extended walk; and the proprietor of a small spot equally demands convenient walks around the house. It is therefore a great absurdity to put "all the world in an acre;" as sometimes occurs in the neighbourhood of Paris, under the appellation of an English Garden, where the dressed ground and the wilderness together scarcely admit of an hundred paces. The wilder scenes, in every sense, require to be kept at a due distance from a house of any consequence.

Between the house and the distant ground, where nature should appear unmolested, there is much room for a landscape gardener to exercise his skill in regard to the necessary conveniences, as well as in displaying the distant scenes to the greatest advantage. This part of his duty is amply detailed by Mr. Repton in many excellent examples, selected from his extensive practice: but unfortunately they lose much of their value under the miscellaneous form in which they are presented. We have on this account been induced to make some little attempt towards supplying the defect of fundamental rules and of order, without which the beauty and advantages of his work could not be readily appreciated. He offers an apology, indeed, in the prefixed advertisement for its appearance in the present state, saying that he met with almost insurmountable difficulties in forming a systematic arrangement; and 'that the whole has been written in a carriage during his professional journeys from one place to another, and being seldom more than three days together in the same place, the difficulty of producing this volume, such as it is, can hardly be conceived by those who enjoy the blessings of stationary retirement, or a permanent home.'

Another defect, which we have had occasion to notice in this work, is that the author frequently deduces, as general principles, those which apply only to particular cases; and he is thus subject at times to seeming contradictions. Viewing the work, however, as a desultory performance, consisting of selec-

tions either from what has been executed, or from what was intended for execution, with descriptions of the locality of situation, and the reasons which guided the artist in his operations, the whole forms a very interesting collection of examples; and although the want of arrangement and of proper connection is a failure which must be lamented, we meet with detached discussions on most of the important points belonging to the subject.

In disposing the ground about the intended scite of a dwelling, it is fortunate for the owner if it be amply stored by nature, so as to require only a partial clearance:—the best advice in such a case being to employ the destructive instruments with caution, recollecting that more mischief may be produced in an hour than can be remedied in a century. We must at the same time bear in mind that, in most instances, there are some defects to be conquered, and many beauties to be atchieved; and undoubtedly much must be created to fit the place for the destined purpose. Here Mr. R. very properly observes, 'The Professor only acquires a knowlege of effects before they are produced, and a facility in producing them, by various methods, expedients, and resources, the result of study, observation, and experience. He knows what can and what cannot be accomplished within certain limits.' (Pref. p. 9.) On this part of the subject, few positive rules can be given: the locality and the prospects must dictate; and good taste must exercise its functions on the spot. General principles, previously established, may often aid the decision; and if sometimes a bold feature is presented, which may encourage and even demand a deviation from prevailing rules, the interference of a first-rate hand is then absolutely necessary: or, as in painting, where the master's stroke would effect wonders, the touch of an inferior artist will spoil the whole.

We now proceed to lay before our readers a more particular account of the contents, with some specimens, of the present work, accompanied with occasional remarks.

Chapter 1. delivers a few observations on *Utility*, but is mostly occupied on *Comparative Proportion*. On the first point, Mr. R. says:

'Under relative fitness I include the comfort, the convenience, the character, and every circumstance of a place, that renders it the desirable habitation of man, and adapts it to the uses of each individual proprietor; for it has occasionally happened to me to have been consulted on the same subject by two different proprietors, when my advice has been materially varied, to accord with the respective circumstances or intentions of each.'

On the second subject, we are told:

'The necessity of observing scale or comparative proportion, may be further elucidated by a reference to West Wycombe, a place generally

nerally known from its vicinity to the road to Oxford. Amongst the profusion of buildings and ornament which the false taste of the last age lavished upon this spot, many were correct in design, and, considered separately, in proportion; but even many of the designs, although perfect in themselves, were rendered absurd, from inattention either to the scale or situation of the surrounding objects. The summit of a hill is covered by a large mass of Grecian architecture, out of which apparently rises a small square projection, with a ball at the top, not unlike the kind of cupolas misplaced over stables; but in reality this building is the tower of a church *, and the ball a room sufficiently large to contain eight or ten people.

'This comparative proportion, or, in other words, this attention to scale or measurement, is not only necessary with regard to objects near each other, but it forms the basis of all improvement depending on perspective, by the laws of which it is well known, that objects diminish in apparent size in proportion to their distance: yet the application of this principle may not perhaps have been so universally considered.'

On *removing ground*, he observes:

'Having often seen great expence incurred by removing ground to shew the whole surface of a valley from the top of a hill, it may not be improper to explain that such an effort is seldom useful or desirable. To the painter it is impossible to represent ground thus foreshortened, and the first source of beauty in the composition of a landscape, is the separation of distinct distances; the imagination delights in filling up those parts of the picture which the eye cannot see; and thus in a landscape, while we do not see the bottom of a deep glen, we suppose it deeper than it really is; but when its whole shape is once laid open, the magic of fancied rocks and rattling torrents is reduced perhaps to the mortifying discovery of a dry valley or a swampy meadow.'

In Chapter 2, among other remarks, we find observations on *the Field of Vision*, and the different effects of light on various objects, accompanied by diagrams. Without the latter, ex-

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'* On the summit of another building. viz. a saw-mill in the park, was a figure of a man in a brown coat and a broad brimmed hat, representing the great Penn of Pennsilvania, which being much larger than the natural proportion of a man, yet having the appearance of a man upon the roof of the building, diminished the size of every other object by which it was surrounded. It has since been removed, and is now in the possession of Mr. Penn at Stoke Pogies, where, placed in a room, it seems a colossal figure. Another instance of false scale at this place, was the diminutive building with a spire at the end of the park, which, perhaps, when the neighbouring trees were small, might have been placed there with a view of extending the perspective. This artifice may be allowable in certain cases, and to a certain degree, yet a cathedral in miniature must in itself be absurd; and when we know that it was only the residence of a shoemaker, and actually dedicated to St. Crispin, it becomes truly ridiculous.'

tracts would be unsatisfactory; and we regret our insufficiency in this respect, because the discussion comprehends some interesting points. Respecting light and shade, the author draws this conclusion:

'That certain objects appear best with the sun behind them, and others with the sun full upon them; and it is rather singular, that to the former belong all *natural* objects, such as Woods, Trees, Lawn, Water, and distant Mountains; while to the latter belong all *artificial* objects, such as Houses, Bridges, Roads, Boats, Arable-fields, and distant Towns or Villages.'

As the work proceeds, it refers chiefly to drawings exemplifying a number of Mr. Repton's labours: deprived of these, it is difficult for us to furnish an adequate idea of the contents; but the following passages, from Chapter 3. relate to a well-known situation, and will illustrate some of the preceding remarks:

'During great part of last century, West Wycombe was deemed a garden of such finished beauty, that to those who formerly remembered the place, it will seem absurd to suggest any improvement. But time will equally extend its changing influence to the works of nature and to those of art, since the planter has to contend with a power—

"A hidden power! at once his friend and foe!
'Tis VEGETATION! Gradual to his groves
She gives their wished effects, and that displayed,
O! that her power would pause! but active still,
She swells each stem, prolongs each vagrant bough,
And darts, with unremitting vigour bold,
From grace to wild luxuriance"—— MASON.

'Thus at West Wycombe, those trees and shrubs which were once its greatest ornament, have now so far outgrown their situation, that the whole character of the place is altered; and instead of that gaiety and cheerfulness inspired by flowering shrubs and young trees, gloom and melancholy seem to have reared their standard in the branches of the tallest elms, and to shed their influence on every surrounding object: on the House, by lessening its importance; on the Water, by darkening its surface; and on the Lawn, by lengthened shadows.

'The prodigious height of the trees near the house has not merely affected the character, but also the very situation of the house. Instead of appearing to stand on a dry bank, considerably above the water (as it actually does), the house, oppressed by the neighbouring trees, became damp, and appeared to have been placed in a gloomy bottom, while the water was hardly visible, from the dark reflection of the trees on its surface, and the views of the distant hills were totally concealed from the house.

'It is a fortunate circumstance for the possessor where improvement can be made rather by cutting down than by planting trees. The effect is instantly produced, and as the change in the scenery at this

this place has actually been realized before I could make a sketch to explain its necessity, the accompanying drawing serves to record my reason for so boldly advising the use of the axe. I am well aware that my advice may subject me to the criticism of some, who will regret the loss of old trees, which, like old acquaintances, excite a degree of veneration, even when their age and infirmity have rendered them useless, perhaps offensive, to all but their youthful associates. The tedious process of planting and rearing woods, and the dreadful havock too often made by injudiciously felling large trees, ought certainly to inspire caution and diffidence; but there is in reality no more temerity in marking the trees to be taken down than those to be planted, and I trust there has not been a single tree displaced at West Wycombe, which has not tended to improve the healthfulness, the magnificence, and the beauty of the place.

'Most of the principal rooms having a north aspect, the landscape requires peculiar management not generally understood. Lawn, wood, and water, are always seen to the greatest advantage with the sun behind them, because the full glare of light between opposite trees destroys the contrast of wood and lawn; while water never looks so brilliant and cheerful when reflecting the northern, as the southern sky: a view therefore to the north would be dull and uninteresting without some artificial objects, such as boats or buildings, or distant corn-fields, to receive the opposite beams of the sun.

'A sketch which I made shewed the effect of taking down trees to admit the distant woods, and by removing those on the island, and of course their reflection, the water becomes more conspicuous; in addition to this, the proposed new road of approach, with carriages occasionally passing near the banks of the lake, will give animation to the view from the saloon.

'The view of West Wycombe, inserted in this work, being taken from the proposed approach, I shall here beg leave to make a short digression, explaining my reasons for that line, founded on some general principles respecting an approach, although it has no other reference to the water, than as it justifies its course in passing the house to arrive at its object.

'If the display of magnificent or of picturesque scenery in a park be made without ostentation, it can be no more at variance with good taste, than the display of superior affluence in the houses, the equipage, the furniture, or the habiliment of wealthy individuals. It will, therefore, I trust, sufficiently justify the line of approach here proposed, to say, that it passes through the most interesting part of the grounds, and will display the scenery of the place to the greatest advantage, without making any violent or unnecessary circuit, to include objects that do not naturally come within its reach. This I deem to be a just and sufficient motive, and an allowable display of property without ostentation.

'The former approach to the house was on the south side of the valley, and objectionable for two reasons: 1st, it ascended the hill, and after passing round the whole of the buildings, it descended to the house, making it appear to stand low: 2d, by going along the side of the hill, little of the park was shewn, although the road actually

passed

passed through it; because, on an inclined plane, the ground which either rises on one side or falls on the other, becomes fore-shortened and little observed, while the eye is directed to the opposite side of the valley, which, in this instance, consisted of enclosures beyond the park. On the contrary, the proposed new approach, being on the north side of the valley, will shew the park on the opposite bank to advantage, and, by ascending to the house, it will appear in its true and desirable situation upon a sufficient eminence above the water; yet backed by still higher ground, richly clothed with wood, this view of the house will also serve to explain, and I hope to justify, the sacrifice of those large trees which have been cut down upon the island, and whose dark shadows being reflected on the water, excluded all cheerfulness.'

We shall now transcribe a passage on *Planting*, in Chapter 4.:

'Single trees, or open groups, are objects of great beauty when scattered on the side of a steep hill, because they may be made to mark the degree of its declivity, and the shadows of the trees are very conspicuous; but on a plain the shadows are little seen, and therefore single trees are of less use.

'I am now to speak of plantations for future, rather than for immediate effect, and instead of mentioning large tracts of land which have been planted under my directions, where a naked, or a barren country has been clothed without difficulty or contrivance, I shall rather instance a subject requiring peculiar management, especially as from its vicinity to a high road, I cannot perhaps produce a better example than the following extract furnishes.

"Coombe Lodge, seen from the turnpike road, does not at present give a favourable impression; for though the view from the house, consisting of the opposite banks of Basildon, is richly wooded, the place itself is naked; and it is difficult to remove this objection without sacrificing more land to the purposes of beauty, than would be advisable, or even justifiable.

'Both the situation and the outline of the house at Coombe Lodge have been determined with judgment: the situation derives great advantages from its southern aspect, and from the views which it commands; and the house derives importance from its extended front. Both these circumstances, however, contribute to the bad opinion conceived of the place when viewed from the road, which is the point from whence its defects are most apparent.

'The front towards the road faces the south, and is therefore lighted by the sun during the greatest part of the day; but being backed by lawn and arable land, and not relieved by wood, the effect of sunshine is equally strong on the back ground as on the house, because there is not a sufficient opposition of colour to separate these different objects; but if, on the contrary, the house be opposed to wood, it will then appear light and conspicuous, the attention being principally directed to the mansion, while the other parts of the scene will be duly subordinate.

'It is also proper that the grounds should accord with the size and stile of the place, and that the mansion be surrounded by its appropriate

propriate appendages. At present the character of the house, and that of the place, are at variance: the latter is that of a farm, but the character of the house is that of a gentleman's residence, which should be surrounded by pleasure ground, wood, and lawn; and although great credit is due to those gentlemen who patronize farming by their example, as well as by their influence, it would be a reflection on the good taste of the country to suppose that the habitation of the gentleman ought not to be distinguished from that of the farmer, as well in the character of the place, as by the size of the house.

'I shall not on this occasion enter into a discussion of the difference between a scene in nature, and a landscape on the painter's canvas; nor consider the very different means by which the painter and the landscape gardener produce the same effect: I shall merely endeavour to shew how far the same principles would direct the professors of either art in the improvement of Coombe Lodge, and more particularly in the form and character of the wood to the north of the house.

'*Breadth*, which is one of the first principles of painting, would prompt the necessity of planting the whole of the hill behind the house; but the improver, who embellishes the scene for the purposes of general utility and real life, must adopt what is convenient as well as beautiful. The painter, when he studies the perfection of his art, forms a correct picture, and takes beauty for his guide. The improver consults the genius of the scene, and connects beauty with those useful supporters, economy and convenience; and as Coombe Lodge would not be relieved by one large wood without a great sacrifice of land, the effect must be produced by planting a part only, whilst the judgment must be influenced by two principles belonging to the sister art, *breadth* and *intricacy*.

'Breadth directs the necessity of large masses or continued lines of plantation, whilst intricacy suggests the shape and direction of the glades of lawn, and teaches how to place loose groups of trees, and separate masses of brushwood, where the outline might otherwise appear hard; and by occasional interruptions to the flowing lines of grass, with suitable recesses and projections of wood, Intricacy contrives to "lead the eye a wanton chace," producing variety without fritter, and continuity without sameness.

'There is another principle to guide the improver in planting the hill in question, which may be derived from the art of painting, and belongs to perspective. It is evident, that if the whole bank were planted, its effects would be good from every point of view: it is no less evident, that where it is necessary to regard economy in planting, and, as in the present instance, to produce the effect of clothing by several lines of wood, instead of one great mass; that effect from some points of sight may be good, from some indifferent, and from others bad; it is therefore necessary to consider how those lines of plantation, which produce a good effect from the house, will appear in perspective from different heights and from different situations, and this question has been determined by various circumstances of the place itself.

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'This subject was elucidated by as many drawings as there were stations described; but as most of them were taken from the public road between Reading and Wallingford, the effect of these plantations will be seen from thence; and I have availed myself, as much as possible, of those examples which, from their proximity to a public road, are most likely to be generally observed.

'If the more common appearances in nature were objects of our imitation, we should certainly plant the valleys and not the hills, since nature generally adopts this rule in her spontaneous plantations; but it is "la belle nature," or those occasional effects of extraordinary beauty, which nature furnishes as models to the Landscape Gardener. And although a wood on the summit of a bleak hill may not be so profitable, or grow so fast, as one in the sheltered valley, yet its advantages will be strongly felt on the surrounding soil. The verdure will be improved when defended from winds, and fertilized by the successive fall of leaves, whilst the cattle will more readily frequent the hills when they are sheltered and protected by sufficient skreens of plantation *.

'In recommending that the hills should be planted, I do not mean that the summits only should be covered by a patch or clump; the woods of the valleys should, on the contrary, seem to climb the hills by such connecting lines, as may neither appear meagre nor artificial, but following the natural shapes of the ground, produce an apparent continuity of wood falling down the hills in various directions.

——— "Rich the robe,
And ample let it flow, that nature wears
On her thron'd eminence! where'er she takes
Her horizontal march, pursue her step
With sweeping train of forest; hill to hill
Unite, with prodigality of shade."——— MASON.

'During the first few years of large plantations in a naked country, the outline, however graceful, will appear hard and artificial; but when the trees begin to require thinning, a few single trees or groups may be brought forward. The precise period at which this may be advisable must depend on the nature of the soil; but so rich is the ground in which plantations were made at Aston about ten years since, that this management has already been adopted with effect. I must observe in this place, that instead of protecting large plantations with hedges and ditches, I have generally recommended a temporary fence of posts and rails, or hurdles on the outside, and either advise a hedge of thorns to be planted at eight or ten yards distance from the outline, or rather that the whole plantation be so filled with thorns and spinous plants, that the cattle may not penetrate far when the temporary fences shall be removed, and thus may be formed that beautiful and irregular outline so much admired in the woods and thickets of a forest.'

'* This remark is verified at Aston, where it is found that more cattle are fed in the park from the improved *qualities* of pasture, since the *quantity* has been reduced by the ample plantations made within the last ten years.'

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The two succeeding chapters detail many expedients suggested for overcoming natural defects and inconveniencies; the success of which amply justifies the high opinion entertained of the author's talents.

Chapter 7. exposes with just censure the ridiculous idea of a *ferme ornée*; and the distinction is forcibly shewn between a park and arable scenery; between the residence of the landlord and that of the farmer.

The 8th Chapter treats of the *Pleasure-Ground.* On this subject, we agree with Mr. R. in many points: but we cannot acquiesce in making an apparent and distinct line to separate the dressed ground, under the management of art, from that which is left in a state of neglected nature. We coincide with him in objecting to the idea that the appearance of art should terminate at the threshold of the door: but we think that all abrupt transitions should be avoided, and a due gradation maintained from art to nature:—or, in other words, that utility and cheerful cleanliness should by degrees mark the vicinity of the dwelling. We are inclined to think that these are Mr. R.'s sentiments, from such of his late designs as we have seen executed; and that the opinion, which this chapter seems to convey, is to be attributed only to a want of sufficient explanation.

Chapter 9. is chiefly occupied in defending the practice of Landscape Gardeners against the opinions of Messrs. Price and Knight; and some notice of the history of the art occurs in Chapter 10, in which a particular observation attracted our attention. After having cited an instance in which Mr. R. had advised the removal of many trees, he says:

'In thus recommending the liberal use of the axe, I hope I shall not be deemed an advocate for that bare and bald system of gardening which has been so justly ridiculed. I do not profess to follow either Le Nôtre or Brown, but selecting beauties from the style of each, to adopt so much of the grandeur of the former as may accord with a palace, and so much of the grace of the latter as may call forth the charms of natural landscape. Each has its proper situation; and good taste will make fashion subservient to good sense.

'The modern rage for natural landscape has frequently carried its admirers beyond the true limits of improvement, the first object of which ought to be *convenience*, and the next *picturesque beauty*.'

In this general way of speaking, nothing is clearly defined. The gradation which we recommend clearly marks the place of each object.

Chapter 11. is miscellaneous. In the same paragraph (p.135.) the author asserts that general principles are impossible; and yet he hopes that 'some general principles' may be deduced from

from the reasons on which the examples of his operations are founded, 'tending to prove that *there are Rules for good taste.*' These ideas are not perfectly consistent.

In this chapter, Mr. R. has again bestowed some labour in considering *approaches* to a mansion; a subject which occupied a great portion of his former publication *. We cannot think that his criticism on a pair of lodges, under the idea of their being frequently the abode of 'squalid misery,' is by any means generally just; nor is the added sarcasm worth recording, though the passage seems to have been introduced for that purpose. It must be the fault of the proprietor, not the necessary consequence of the establishment, if such wretchedness is there presented to the eye of the visitor; and even in a lodge placed at the approach to a work-house, the governors are usually careful that the gatekeeper should be decent:—can we then conceive that the master of a lordly mansion should be less attentive to appearances? A handsome gateway distinguishes the entrance to a principal residence; and, whatever may be the custom of some proprietors, a servant is expected to be found officiating there for convenience, and to prevent improper intrusions: indeed such a gateway, indicating such a principal entrance, cannot be complete without an attendant; and his station should be evident, in order that a stranger, wishing to make inquiry, should be at no loss. For convenience, the lodge should be close to the gate; and, in every view of propriety, no plan seems so well adapted to the purpose as that in which they are contiguous to each other. It appears ridiculous to meet with a grand gateway, by which the visitor knows he is to enter, while the means of obtaining entrance are denied, until, after a bewildering search, according to Mr. R.'s proposition, smoke is descried issuing from a neighbouring thicket! The lodge should in reality be an appropriate appendage to the gate; and whatever attempt may be made to throw ridicule on the custom of 'splitting the building into a pair,' this love of palpable uniformity is preferable to the obscurity which attends the adoption of an opposite extreme.

We transcribe the subsequent passage, however, with much satisfaction:

'Instead of depopulating villages, and destroying hamlets in the neighbourhood of a palace, I should rather wish to mark the importance of the mansion, and the wealth of its domain, by the appearance of proper provision for its poor dependants; the frequent instances I have witnessed where the industrious labourer had many miles to walk from his daily task, have strongly inforced the necessity, not to say

* See M. Rev. Vol. xix. N. S. p. 1.

humanity,

humanity, of providing comfortable and convenient residences for those who may have employment about the grounds. It is thus that the real importance of a place might be distinguished by the number of its cottages, or rather substantial houses appropriated to the residence of those belonging to the place; this would truly enrich the scenery of a country, by creating a village at the entrance of every park; it is not by their number only, but by the attention to the neatness, comfort, and simple ornament of such buildings, that we should then judge of the style of the neighbouring palace; and whether the houses were of clay and thatched, or embellished with the ornaments of architecture, there would be equal opportunity for the display of good taste.'

Every benevolent mind will accord with Mr. R.'s proposition; which is not less honourable for attention to the peasant, than for the good sense of placing the village so as to administer to the cheerfulness and convenience of the principal residence: of preventing the uncomfortable and drear appearance of a solitary approach; and of raising images in the mind which accord with the idea of the consequence attending, and the support resulting from a robust and protected peasantry on a large landed property. This is the noblest feature of a great domain; and, in its adoption, the late erroneous practice will be changed for the more gratifying custom of former days. The poor peasant, instead of being driven to an inhospitable spot, will participate in the extensive improvements of his Lord; and the combination will present a picture, in due subordination, of the alliance between the tenantry and their chief: while the appearance of the village will give the proprietor an opportunity of impressing the stranger with a due idea of his state, and of his attention to the true supporters of his dignity and comfort *.

Mr.

* On the subject of the peasant and his cottage, we cannot help recording the opposite modes pursued by two ecclesiastical dignitaries, of princely revenue in the sister kingdoms. The one, in our adjoining island, by a benevolent attention to the poor within his diocese, rendering their cabins not only comfortable, but of a clean and cheerful appearance, was constantly greeted by the peasantry with a joyful countenance whenever he passed their cot; and none of the rancour, so often engendered by opposite religions, here prevailed against inward gratitude for real benefits received. The care which was taken to keep the dwellings in a clean coat had its influence on the inside, and the poor of that part of Ireland exhibited a strong contrast to those of other districts, in which filth characterized the inhabitants.

In the other case, on this side of the water, a considerable sum was appropriated to serve the poor, when provisions were at a great price; and the dignitary applied it in the purchase of bacon and potatoes,

Mr. Repton has laid down a principle in his preface, (p. 13.) that 'an approach which does not evidently lead to the house, or which does not take the shortest course, cannot be right:' but he frequently deviates from this rule in his works, without shewing sufficient reason for his change of sentiment. We think that, from the principal park entrance to the mansion, the general approach undoubtedly requires a proper distinction, and that art should appear as attending on convenience. It is rarely prudent to distend the approach by a circuit round the park, for the sake of shewing its beauties and extent before the visitor reaches the house; because, when thus satiated, the mind has nothing more either to desire or to expect. Besides, a dressed road certainly interferes too much with pure nature: they are incongruous, and ought to be kept distinct. At intervals, a slight view of the distant grounds, from the approach, is as much as will be desirable, in order to give some idea of what we are afterward to behold.

These remarks have now extended to so much length, that we must defer the remainder of this article to our next Number.

[*To be continued.*]

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tatoes, to be served out at a low consideration. The poor were required to attend at the palace gate, and, together with the mite which formed their destined share, they had a lesson read to them on frugality; and, on repeating their application, they were required to give an account of the manner in which every farthing of their earnings had been expended. The number of applications soon diminished; and in a little time it was found that the viands might be retained or sold to the usual venders, since the English cottager would rather bear with half a meal, purchased at a shop price, than have his independent mind insulted.

It is the manner of conveying a benefit which heightens its value. An ostentatious display of bounty makes the receiver feel the disparity of condition; and it excites a dissatisfaction in the idea that chance has not given him the advantage possessed by a more fortunate fellow-creature, which is paramount to all other considerations.

In another instance, a nobleman, by the rewards and punishments of exhibiting names hung up in a parish church, endeavoured to enforce the attendance of the poor parishioners at divine worship. Much pains were taken, without the desired effect:—the defaulters were numerous; and it is much to be feared that the best attendances were given from respect to the earthly lord. Not so with the good pastor of the west. Neither his ample fortune, nor his active exertions as a magistrate, can induce him to withdraw his attentions from his parishioners. He likewise notices the occasional absence of any of his flock: but he calls at their habitations to learn whether disease or distress has been the cause; and at *his* church are few defaulters, though it is distant several miles from the residence of the majority of his parishioners. To the great dignitary we would say,—"Go thou, and do likewise."

ART.

Saun...s.

ART. II. *The Life and Posthumous Writings of William Cowper, Esq.*; with an introductory Letter to the Right Honourable Earl Cowper. By William Hayley, Esq. Vol. III. * 4to. pp. 416. 1l. 1s. Boards. Johnson. 1804.

"MORE last words" are rarely the best words of a posthumous author; and it has often happened that an injudicious editor, by draining his favourite to the very dregs, has made admiration terminate in something not unlike disgust:—but not so Mr. Hayley with his friend Cowper, whose genius flows with equal spirit and clearness to the last. In this additional volume, we are presented with a series of letters chiefly addressed to two correspondents, the Rev. John Newton, Rector of St. Mary Woolnoth, and the Rev. William Unwin, son of Mrs. Unwin, the poet's *Mary*, written between the years 1778 and 1786; in which the life, character, and opinions of the author are fully displayed; and which, on account both of matter and manner, cannot fail of being acceptable to the public. Never was the life of a recluse rendered so full of entertainment to his friends, as that of Cowper. Though he speaks of himself as 'living in a vinegar-bottle,' and as occupied with the most trivial employments, he contrives, by the use which he makes of them, by the ease of his style, by his natural and playful descriptions, and by the reflections of a fertile mind, to excite an interest not inferior to that which we feel in perusing the lives of men who have passed through the most busy and agitating scenes.

What imagination can be so dull, after having read these letters, as not to view the poet in his parlour, garden, and green-house; not to behold him in the act of writing and in that of reading aloud to the ladies, or in the humbler employments of feeding his birds and his tame hares, winding thread, working in the garden, and even mending the kitchen windows? Cowper's *forte* was letter-writing; and he has himself so minutely detailed his avocations and his thoughts, that, without intending it, he became his own biographer. The office of the editor, therefore, as far as this object is concerned, is only that of collecting the communications which the poet made to his friends, and of chronologically arranging them. The objection may be urged against an exhibition of this kind, that it displays perpetual egotism: but this is unavoidable from the very circumstances of the case; and, as the public must be aware that it is a peep behind the curtain with which they were not originally to be indulged, they will be rather inclined

* For Vols. 1 and 2, see Rev. Vol. xli. N. S. (July 1803.)

to thank the editor than to demand an apology for his conduct. Perhaps the letter-writer himself, on some occasions, would have more right to be displeased: for these letters probably display more of the ambition of the poet, than the poet himself would wish to be made public; since, with every exertion to keep himself humble, that "best infirmity of noble minds" gains the ascendancy; and though he tells Mr. Unwin that his and his mother's approbation is fame enough for him, his exertions and solicitude in reality point to more extended praise. Mr. Cowper was a very good and amiable man; and he might be seriously desirous of checking in his own mind that self-gratulation, with which the applause of the world is very apt to be accompanied: but, as what Horace has observed respecting the occupations of a poet will apply also to his morals, (should the latter happen to be an object of his solicitude,)

In vitium ducit culpæ fuga——;

so we see in the case before us the fear of vanity * producing false modesty, since Mr. C. could never think that 'he had no more right to the name of poet than the maker of mouse-traps to that of engineer;' nor that his letters are never worth reading, p. 116.

The melancholy of the author of the Task is often introduced by himself in these epistles, but it appears to have been of a very peculiar character: for he remarks in one of his letters; 'Strange as it may seem, the most ludicrous lines I ever wrote have been written in the saddest mood, and but for that mood perhaps had never been written.'

These selections are preceded by observations on the Letters of eminent writers, particularly those of Pope and Cowper; which the editor modestly calls 'Desultory Remarks,' but which the reader will not find to be so desultory as the title indicates. Mr. Hayley notices the letters of classic antiquity, as well as those which have been written in the modern languages of Europe. In mentioning the epistolary productions of our own country, he enters into arguments, from which in this place we shall abstain: but, in adverting to the French, who have been considered as our superiors in this style of composition, he is proud of the compliment paid to Cowper by a foreigner, though he will not subscribe to our previous inferiority.

'The Letters of the Poet have been honored with the notice, and the applause of foreigners. A polite and liberal scholar of France,

* In p. 286, we are told that he considers himself as 'not partaking in the smallest degree of that vanity with which authors in general are so justly chargeable.'

deeply

deeply versed in our literature, has confessed, that he never thought the writers of this country equal to those of his own, in all the excellencies of epistolary writing, till he read the Letters of Cowper.

'Gratified as I am by a compliment so honorable to my departed friend, I am too zealous an advocate for the literary glory of our country to admit, that the Letter-writers of England are collectively inferior in merit to those of any nation in the modern world.'

We shall not enter into Mr. Hayley's appreciation of the merits of those writers whom he enumerates in these remarks, but shall confine ourselves to the poet of Olney.—Mr. H. next explains the motives by which his conduct as editor has been regulated, and particularly in relation to that part of the correspondence which details the quarrel between the female rival-candidates for the poet's affection, Lady Austen and Mrs. Unwin. Feeling that the spirit of Cowper would not approve of his suffering any aspersion to be cast on the temper of the latter Lady, without some attempt to wipe it away, Mr. H. introduces an extract from a letter, which mentions their reconciliation: but it does not completely effect the object for which it was produced; and the obvious answer to it is, in the form of a question, "If the Ladies were reconciled, why was the happy trio dissolved?"

'In preparing the following selection for the press, I have endeavoured to recollect, on every doubtful occasion, the feelings of Cowper; and made it a rule to reject, whatever my perfect intimacy with those feelings could lead me to suppose the spirit of the departed Poet might wish me to lay aside, as unfit for publication. I consider an editor as guilty of the basest injury to the dead, who admits into the posthumous volumes of an author, whom he professes to love and admire, any composition, which his own conscience informs him, *that author*, if he could speak from the tomb, would direct him to suppress.

'On this principle, I have declined to print some Letters, which entered more than I think the public ought to enter, into the history of a trifling feminine discord, that disturbed the perfect harmony of the happy trio at Olney, when Lady Austen and Mrs. Unwin were the united inspirers of the Poet; yet, as the brief and true account, which I gave of their separation, has been thought to cast a shade of censure on the temper of Mrs. Unwin, which I was far from intending, in justice to the memory of that exemplary and sublime female friend, I will here introduce a passage from a Letter of Cowper to the Reverend William Unwin, honorable to both the ladies in question, as it describes them in a moment of generous reconciliation:—

"I inclose a letter from Lady Austen, which I beg you to return to me in your next. We are reconciled: she seized the first opportunity to embrace your Mother with tears of the tenderest affection, and I, of course, am satisfied. We were all a little aukward at first, but now are as easy as ever."

'This Letter happens to have no date, but the expressions I have cited from it, are sufficient to prove, that Mrs. Unwin, instead of having

having shewn an envious infirmity of temper on this occasion, must have conducted herself with a delicate liberality of mind.'

Some persons will be of opinion that the twelve letters inserted at the end of this volume, written in the early part of the Poet's life, (in 1765, 6) to his relation Lady Hesketh, might with no injury to his fame have been omitted: but the editor gives the following reason for their insertion, which we consider it as our duty to state:

'If in selecting Letters of my friend for the press, I should alarm the volatile reader by admitting several of a devotional spirit, I will ingenuously confess my reason for imparting them to the public. There is such tender simplicity, such attractive sweetness, in these serious Letters, that I am confident few professed works of devotion can equal their efficacy in awakening and confirming sincere and simple piety, in persons of various persuasions. His Letters and his Poetry will, in this respect, alternately extend and strengthen the influence of each other. He wrote occasionally to clerical friends of the established church, and to others among the dissenters. His heart made no difference between them, for it felt towards both the fraternal sensations of true Christianity.'

As Mr. Cowper possessed the art of what he terms 'letter-spinning' in a most agreeable manner, we should think that our task was imperfectly executed, were we to omit to present our readers with some specimens from this additional collection. It is difficult, however, to make such a choice as will satisfy all readers. Yet, if we cannot advert to the variety of subjects on which, as circumstances arise, he offers his opinion, we shall transcribe enough to give farther insight into the character and manner of this enlightened, sprightly, and amiable man.

The contents of this volume being for the most part addressed to two clergymen, we shall in the first place exhibit the author's hints relative to preaching, which are admirable:

'To the Rev. JOHN NEWTON.

'My Dear Friend, June 17, 1783.

'Your Letter reached Mr. S——while Mr. —— was with him; whether it wrought any change in *his* opinion of that gentleman, as a preacher, I know not, but for my own part I give you full credit for the soundness and rectitude of *yours*. No man was ever scolded out of his sins. The heart, corrupt as it is, and because it is so, grows angry if it be not treated with some management and good manners, and scolds again. A surley mastiff will bear perhaps to be stroked, though he will growl even under that operation; but if you touch him roughly, he will bite. There is no grace that the spirit of self can counterfeit with more success than a religious zeal. A man thinks he is fighting for Christ, and he is fighting for his own notions. He thinks that he is skilfully searching the hearts of others, when he is only gratifying the malignity of his own; and charitably supposes his

his hearers destitute of all grace, that he may shine the more in his own eyes by comparison. When he has performed this notable task, he wonders that they are not converted; "he has given it them soundly, and if they do not tremble, and confess that God is in him of a truth, he gives them up as reprobate, incorrigible, and lost for ever." But a man that loves me, if he sees me in an error, will pity me, and endeavour calmly to convince me of it, and persuade me to forsake it. If he has great and good news to tell me, he will not do it angrily, and in much heat and discomposure of spirit. It is not therefore easy to conceive on what ground a minister can justify a conduct, which only proves that he does not understand his errand. The absurdity of it would certainly strike him if he were not himself deluded.

'A people will always love a minister, if a minister seems to love his people. The old maxim, *Simile agit in simile*, is in no case more exactly verified: therefore you were beloved at Olney, and if you preached to the Chickesaws, and Chactaws, would be equally beloved by them.'

In another letter, dated March 29, 1784, addressed to the same correspondent, and in reference to the same Mr. S——, he offers similar remarks:

'Mr. S———, who you say was so much admired in your pulpit, would be equally admired in his own, at least by all capable judges, were he not so apt to be angry with his congregation. This hurts him, and had he the understanding and eloquence of Paul himself, would still hurt him. He seldom, hardly ever indeed, preaches a gentle, well tempered sermon, but I hear it highly commended: but warmth of temper, indulged to a degree that may be called scolding, defeats the end of preaching. It is a misapplication of his powers, which it also cripples; and teizes away his hearers. But he is a good man, and may perhaps out-grow it.'

Mr. C. is not less judicious in his advice to Christians, in a letter to Mr. Unwin:

'I say amen with all my heart, to your observation on religious characters. Men, who profess themselves adepts in mathematical knowledge, in astronomy, or jurisprudence, are generally as well qualified as they would appear. The reason may be, that they are always liable to detection, should they attempt to impose upon mankind, and therefore take care to be what they pretend. In religion alone, a profession is often slightly taken up, and slovenly carried on, because forsooth, candour and charity require us to hope the best, and to judge favourably of our neighbour, and because it is easy to deceive the ignorant, who are a great majority upon this subject. Let a man attach himself to a particular party, contend furiously for what are properly called evangelical doctrines, and enlist himself under the banner of some popular preacher, and the business is done. Behold a Christian, a Saint, a Phœnix!—In the mean time perhaps, his heart and his temper, and even his conduct, are unsanctified; possibly less exemplary than those of some avowed infidels. No matter—he can talk—he has the Shibboleth of the true church—the bible

in his pocket, and a head well stored with notions. But the quiet, humble, modest, and peaceable person, who is in his practice, what the other is only in his profession, who hates a noise, and therefore makes none, who knowing the snares that are in the world, keeps himself as much out of it as he can, and never enters it, but when duty calls, and even then with fear and trembling—is the Christian, that will always stand highest in the estimation of those, who bring all characters to the test of true wisdom, and judge of the tree by its fruit.'

Having adverted to the author's love of praise, we shall make an extract from a letter in which he acknowleges this passion, and assigns his reasons for it, with his usual playfulness and sensibility:

'To the Rev. WILLIAM UNWIN.

'My Dear Friend, June 8, 1780.

'It is possible I might have indulged myself in the pleasure of writing to you, without waiting for a Letter from you, but for a reason, which you will not easily guess. Your mother communicated to me, the satisfaction you expressed in my correspondence, that you thought me entertaining, and clever, and so forth:—Now you must know, I love praise dearly, especially from the judicious, and those who have so much delicacy themselves, as not to offend mine in giving it. But then, I found this consequence attending, or likely to attend, the eulogium you bestowed—if my friend thought me witty before, he shall think me ten times more witty hereafter—where I joked once, I will joke five times, and, for one sensible remark, I will send him a dozen. Now this foolish vanity would have spoilt me quite, and would have made me as disgusting a Letter-writer as Pope, who seems to have thought, that unless a sentence was well turned, and every period pointed with some conceit, it was not worth the carriage. Accordingly he is to me, except in very few instances, the most disagreeable maker of epistles, that ever I met with. I was willing, therefore, to wait 'till the impression your commendation had made, upon the foolish part of me, was worn off, that I might scribble away as usual, and write my upper-most thoughts, and those only.'

Mr. Hayley, in the Desultory Remarks, combats this opinion of Cowper relative to Pope's letters.

The singularity rather than the merit of a *jingling* letter induces us to give it a place:

'To the Rev. JOHN NEWTON.

'My very dear Friend, July 12, 1781.

'I am going to send, what, when you have read, you may scratch your head, and say, I suppose, there's nobody knows, whether what I have got, be verse, or not:—by the tune and the time, it ought to be rhyme, but if it be, did you ever see, of late or of yore, such a ditty before?

'I have writ Charity, not for popularity, but as well as I cou'd, in hopes to do good; and if the reviewer should say, "to be sure,

the gentleman's muse wears Methodist shoes, you may know by her pace and talk about grace, that she and her bard have little regard for the taste and fashions, and ruling passions, and hoydening play of the modern day; and though she assume a borrowed plume, and now and then wear a tittering air, 'tis only her plan to catch, if she can, the giddy and gay, as they go that way, by a production on a new construction: She has baited her trap, in hopes to snap, all that may come, with a sugar plumb."——His opinion in this will not be amiss; 'tis what I intend my principal end, and if I succeed and folks should read, till a few are brought to a serious thought, I shall think I am paid, for all I have said, and all I have done, though I have run, many a time, after a rhyme, as far as from hence, to the end of my sense, and, by hook, or crook, write another book, if I live and am here, another year.

'I heard before of a room, with a floor laid upon springs, and such like things, with so much art, in every part, that when you went in, you was forced to begin a minuet pace, with an air and a grace, swimming about, now in, and now out, with a deal of state, in a figure of eight, without pipe or string, or any such thing; and now I have writ, in a rhyming fit, what will make you dance, and as you advance, will keep you still, though against your will, dancing away, alert and gay, till you come to an end of what I have penn'd; which that you may do 'ere Madam and you, are quite worn out, with jigging about, I take my leave; and here you receive a bow profound, down to the ground, from your humble me— W. C.'

In the 92d letter, we find a translation of some Latin lines by Dr. Jortin on the shortness of life: but no notice is taken of the thought being exactly copied from Horace's ode beginning *Diffugere nives*.

Even the braying of an ass is an occurrence of which Mr. Cowper knew how to make use:

'A neighbour of mine, (says he,) in Silver-end, keeps an ass, the ass lives on the other side of the garden wall, and I am writing in the green-house: it happens that he is this morning most musically disposed, whether cheered by the fine weather, or by some new tune which he has just acquired, or by finding his voice more harmonious than usual. It would be cruel to mortify so fine a singer, therefore I do not tell him that he interrupts, and hinders me, but I venture to tell you so, and to plead his performance in excuse of my abrupt conclusion.'

Excepting the ass, Mr. C. regarded every animal as musical; and he looks forwards to heaven as the world of music: but he connects this thought with a most gloomy idea, viz. that 'there is somewhere in infinite space a world that does not roll within the precincts of mercy, where tones so dismal are heard which make woe itself more insupportable, and which accuminate even despair.' Such a sentiment may be the result of a morbid state of mind: but can a rational Being reflect on a God of infinite

justice and love, and fancy that there is a state in his empire beyond the precincts of mercy? Suffering is considered in the Scriptures as a moral remedy in the administration of the intellectual Universe; and the punishment of sinners is not an act excluding them from mercy, but a process instrumental to their ultimate amelioration.

As the editor himself very judiciously exposes Mr. Cowper's misapprehension of the behaviour of Captain Cook at Owhyhee, just preceding his death, we need not detain the reader on this subject.

We shall subjoin another letter, which will speak for itself:

'To the Rev. WILLIAM UNWIN.

'My dear William,

'You are sometimes indebted to bad weather, but more frequently to a dejected state of mind, for my punctuality as a correspondent. This was the case when I composed that tragic-comic ditty for which you thank me, my spirits were exceedingly low, and having no fool or jester at hand, I resolved to be my own. The end was answered, I laughed myself and I made you laugh. Sometimes I pour out my thoughts in a mournful strain, but those sable effusions your Mother will not suffer me to send you, being resolved that nobody shall share with me the burthen of my melancholy but herself. In general you may suppose that I am remarkably sad when I seem remarkably merry. The effort we make to get rid of a load, is usually violent in proportion to the weight of it. I have seen at Sadlers' Wells, a tight little fellow dancing with a fat man upon his shoulders; to those who looked at him, he seemed insensible of the incumbrance, but if a physician had felt his pulse, when the feat was over, I suppose he would have found the effect of it there. Perhaps you remember the Undertakers' dance in the Rehearsal, which they perform in crape hat bands and black-cloaks, to the tune of "Hob or Nob;" one of the sprightliest airs in the world. Such is my fiddling, and such is my dancing; but they serve a purpose which at some certain times could not be so effectually promoted by any thing else.

'I have endeavoured to comply with your request, though I am not good at writing upon a given subject. Your Mother however comforts me by her approbation, and I steer myself in all that I produce by her judgment. If she does not understand me at the first reading, I am sure the lines are obscure, and always alter them; if she laughs, I know it is not without reason, and if she says—"that's well, it will do"—I have no fear lest any body else should find fault with it. She is my lord chamberlain who licenses all I write.

'To Miss C——, on her Birth-Day.

'*How many between East and West,*
Disgrace their parent Earth,
Whose deeds constrain us to detest
The day that gave them birth!

'*Not*

'Not so when Stella's natal morn
Revolving months restore,
We can rejoice that she was born,
And wish her born once more!'

If you like it, use it. If not, you know the remedy. It is serious, yet epigrammatic—like a bishop at a ball!' W. C.

From the letters to Lady Hesketh, written at a period in which the author's mind was strongly tinctured with Methodism, we shall make no extract.

Occasionally we meet with short pieces of poetry mixed with the prose, though nothing of prominent merit occurs. At the end of the volume, however, we are gratified with a real treat in a poetic fragment; with the discovery of which the editor may well congratulate himself, and with a part of which we shall entertain our readers. It is intitled

'YARDLEY-OAK *.

'Survivor sole, and hardly such, of all
That once liv'd here thy brethren, at my birth
(Since which I number three-score winters past)
A shatter'd veteran, hollow-trunk'd perhaps
As now, and with excoriate forks deform'd,

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* The following explanation is added from a letter of Dr. Johnson, kinsman of the poet:

"Among our dear Cowper's papers, I found the following memorandum—

'YARDLEY OAK IN GIRTH.
Feet 22, Inches 6½.

THE OAK AT YARDLEY-LODGE,
Feet 28, Inches 5.'

As to Yardley Oak, it stands in Yardley Chase, where the Earls of Northampton have a fine seat. It was a favourite walk of our dear Cowper, and he once carried me to see that Oak. I believe it is five miles at least from Weston-Lodge. It is indeed a noble tree—perfectly sound, and stands in an open part of the Chase, with only one or two others near it, so as to be seen to advantage.

"With respect to the Oak at Yardley Lodge, that is quite in decay—a pollard, and almost hollow. I took an excrescence from it in the year 1791, and if I mistake not, Cowper told me it is said to have been an Oak in the time of the Conqueror.—This latter Oak is in the road to the former, but not above half so far from Weston-Lodge, being only just beyond Killick and Dingledeny.—This is all I can tell you about the Oaks—they were old acquaintance, and great favourites of the Bard. How rejoiced I am to hear that he has immortalized one of them in blank verse. Where could those 161 lines lie hid? Till this very day I never heard of their existence, nor suspected it."

Relicts

Relicts of ages! Could a mind, imbued
With truth from Heaven, created thing adore,
I might with rev'rence kneel, and worship thee!

'It seems idolatry with some excuse,
When our fore-father Druids in their oaks
Imagin'd sanctity. The conscience, yet
Unpurified by an authentic act
Of amnesty, the meed of blood divine,
Lov'd not the light, but gloomy, into gloom
Of thickest shades, like Adam after taste
Of fruit proscrib'd, as to a refuge, fled!

'Thou wert a bauble once; a cup and ball,
Which babes might play with; and the thievish jay
Seeking her food, with ease might have purloin'd
The auburn nut that held thee, swallowing down
Thy yet close-folded latitude of boughs,
And all thine embryo vastness, at a gulp.
But fate thy growth decreed: autumnal rains,
Beneath thy parent-tree, mellow'd the soil
Design'd thy cradle, and a skipping deer,
With pointed hoof dibbling the glebe, prepar'd
The soft receptacle, in which secure
Thy rudiments should sleep the winter through.

'So fancy dreams—disprove it if ye can
Ye reas'ners broad awake, whose busy search
Of argument, employ'd too oft amiss,
Sifts half the pleasures of short life away!

'Thou fell'st mature, and in the loamy clod
Swelling with vegetative force instinct
Didst burst thine egg, as their's the fabled Twins,
Now stars; two lobes protruding pair'd exact:
A leaf succeeded, and another leaf,
And, all the elements thy puny growth
Fost'ring propitious, thou becam'st a twig.

'Who liv'd when thou wert such? Oh! couldst thou speak,
As in Dodona once thy kindred trees
Oracular, I would not curious ask
The future, best unknown, but at thy mouth
Inquisitive, the less ambiguous past!

'By thee I might correct, erroneous oft,
The clock of history, facts and events
Timing more punctual, unrecorded facts
Recov'ring, and mistated setting right—
Desp'rate attempt till trees shall speak again!

'Time made thee what thou wert—King of the woods!
And time hath made thee what thou art—a cave
For owls to roost in! Once thy spreading boughs
O'erhung the champaign, and the numerous flock,

That

That graz'd it stood beneath that ample cope
Uncrouded, yet safe-shelter'd from the storm.
No flock frequents thee now; thou hast out-liv'd
Thy popularit , and art become
(Unless verse rescue thee awhile) a thing
Forgotten, as the foliage of thy youth!

'While thus through all the stages thou hast push'd
Of treeship—first a seedling hid in grass;
Then twig: then sapling; and, as century roll'd
Slow after century, a giant bulk
Of girth enormous, with moss-cushion'd root
Upheav'd above the soil, and sides imboss'd
With prominent wens globose—till at the last,
The rottenness, which time is charg'd to inflict
On other mighty ones, found also thee.

'What exhibitions various hath the world
Witnessed, of mutability in all
That we account most durable below!
Change is the diet, on which all subsist,
Created changeable, and change at last
Destroys them—skies uncertain, now the heat
Transmitting cloudless, and the solar beam
Now quenching, in a boundless sea of clouds—
Calm and alternate storm, moisture and drought,
Invigorate by turns the springs of life
In all that live, plant, animal, and man,
And in conclusion mar them. Nature's threads,
Fine, passing thought, e'en in her coarsest works,
Delight in agitation—yet sustain
The force that agitates not unimpair'd,
But worn by frequent impulse, to the cause
Of their best tone their dissolution owe.

'Thought cannot spend itself comparing still
The great and little of thy lot, thy growth
From almost nullity into a state
Of matchless grandeur, and declension thence
Slow into such magnificent decay.
Time was, when settling on thy leaf, a fly
Could shake thee to the root—and time has been
When tempests could not. At thy firmest age
Thou hadst within thy bole solid contents
That might have ribb'd the sides, and plank'd the deck
Of some flagg'd admiral, and tortuous arms,
The ship wright's darling treasure, didst present
To the four quarter'd winds, robust and bold,
Warp'd into tough knee timber, many a load!
But the axe spar'd thee; in those thriftier days
Oaks fell not, hewn by thousands, to supply
The bottomless demands of contest, wag'd
For senatorial honours. Thus to time

The task was left to whittle thee away,
With his sly scythe, whose ever nibbling edge,
Noiseless, an atom and an atom more,
Disjoining from the rest, has unobserv'd
Achiev'd a labour, which had far and wide,
(By man perform'd) made all the forest ring.

'Embowell'd now, and of thy antient self
Possessing nought, but the scoop'd rind, that seems
An huge throat calling to the clouds for drink,
Which it would give in rivulets to thy root;
Thou temptest none, but rather much forbidd'st
The feller's toil, which thou couldst ill requite:
Yet is thy root sincere, sound as the rock,
A quarry of stout spurs, and knotted fangs,
Which crook'd into a thousand whimsies, clasp
The stubborn soil, and hold thee still erect.

'So stands a kingdom, whose foundation yet
Fails not, in virtue and in wisdom lay'd,
Though all the superstructure, by the tooth
Pulveriz'd of venality, a shell
Stands now—and semblance only of itself!'

In some parts of this fragment, the poet is not inferior to Shakspeare and Milton; though in others he betrays both inflation and quaintness. It is fair, however, to suppose that, had Mr. Cowper finished his design, we should have found it more polished.—To conclude: he must take an eminent station among our writers both of verse and prose; and he merits also our cordial esteem as making genius always subservient to religion and virtue.

Facing the title is a view of St. Edmund's Chapel, in the Church of East Dereham, containing the grave of Mr. Cowper; and at the end of the volume is a sketch of his Monument, with the following inscription, written (we suppose) by the Editor:

'IN MEMORY
OF WILLIAM COWPER ESQ^r
BORN IN HERTFORDSHIRE 1731
BURIED IN THIS CHURCH 1800.

YE, WHO WITH WARMTH THE PUBLIC TRIUMPH FEEL
OF TALENTS, DIGNIFIED BY SACRED ZEAL,
HERE, TO DEVOTION'S BARD DEVOUTLY JUST,
PAY YOUR FOND TRIBUTE DUE TO COWPER'S DUST!
ENGLAND, EXULTING IN HIS SPOTLESS FAME,
RANKS WITH HER DEAREST SONS HIS FAV'RITE NAME:
SENSE, FANCY, WIT, SUFFICE NOT ALL TO RAISE
SO CLEAR A TITLE TO AFFECTION'S PRAISE;
HIS HIGHEST HONOURS TO THE HEART BELONG;
HIS VIRTUES FORM'D THE MAGIC OF HIS SONG.'

This epitaph is simply elegant, and appropriately just.

Mo. y.

ART.

ART. III. *General Zoology*, or Systematic Natural History, by George Shaw, M.D. F.R.S. &c. with Plates from the first Authorities, and most select Specimens, engraved principally by Mr. Heath. Vol. IV. in 2 Parts. 8vo. pp. 640. 98 Plates. 2l. 12s. 6d. Boards. Kearsley. 1803.

THE preceding volumes of this judicious and elegant compilement were introduced to the notice of our readers in the 39th volume of our New Series, pp. 16. and 113., and it gives us pleasure again to report the progress of the author. In pursuance of his plan, Dr. Shaw now details the natural history of Fishes; and, as introductory matter, he has extracted, chiefly from the large work of Monro, some of the principal physiological and anatomical facts which relate to this interesting class of animals. These preliminary observations are valuable, but scanty; and in particular they convey little or no information regarding the scaly covering, the respiration, the habits, and the longevity of fishes.

In the distribution of his orders, Dr. Shaw follows the Linnéan divisions of *apodal*, *jugular*, *thoracic*, and *abdominal*. The first includes those fishes which have no ventral fins; the second, those which have the ventral more forward than the pectoral, or breast fins; the third, those which have the ventral fins situated immediately under the pectoral; and the fourth, those which have the ventral placed behind the pectoral.

'There still remains a particular tribe called Cartilaginous Fishes, *Pisces Cartilaginei*. This tribe was by Linnæus separated from the rest, and placed in the class Amphibia, where it constitutes the order *Nantes*.

'This particular distribution of the Cartilaginous Fishes was made on a supposition of their being furnished both with lungs and gills; an idea which seemed confirmed by the observations of Dr. Garden of South Carolina, who, at the request of Linnæus, examined the organs of the genus *Diodon*, and found, as he conceived, both external branchiæ or gills, and internal lungs. This idea, however, has been shewn by later physiologists to have been not strictly correct; the supposed lungs being in reality only a peculiar modification of gills. The cartilaginous fishes, as their name imports, differ from others in having a cartilaginous instead of a bony skeleton.'

Either prefixed or subjoined to the statement of these divisions, we expected a definition of the class: but, we know not for what good reason, the Doctor has omitted this information. The first part of the fourth volume, which is in size very disproportioned to the second, comprizes the apodal and jugular orders; and the second, the thoracic.—To the eight genera of the apodal order, as set down in the twelfth edition of the System

of Nature, the present author has added ten; namely, *Anguilla*, *Synbranchus*, *Sphagebranchus*, *Monopterus*, *Odontognathus*, *Comephorus*, *Triurus*, *Leptocephalus*, *Stylephorus*, and *Sternoptyx*.

The Linnéan generic characters of *Muræna* being applied to the *Anguilla* of Dr. Shaw, an eel-shaped body, want of pectoral fins, and a spiracle on each side of the neck, constitute his *Muræna*. From the latter, *Synbranchus* differs only in the spiracle being single, and situated beneath the throat. Its two species, both from Surinam, are neatly described.

It is still doubtful whether *Sphagebranchus rostratus*, adopted from Bloch, be essentially different from the *Muræna cæca* of Linné.

Monopterus Javanicus is inserted on the authority of La Cépède, whose splendid work on Ichthyology has been singularly enriched by the manuscript observations of Commerson.

Nineteen very amusing pages are devoted to the electric Gymnotus: but we pass to an article of greater novelty.

'ACULEATED ODONTOGNATHUS.

Odontognathus abdomine aculeato.
Odontognathus with aculeated abdomen.
L'Odontognathe aiguillonné. *Cépède pisc. 2. p. 222.*

'The genus Odontognathus, instituted by Cépède, consists of a single species, of which the following is the description The head, body, and tail are very compressed: the lower jaw, which is longer than the upper, is very much elevated towards the other when the mouth is closed, insomuch as to appear almost vertical, and is lowered somewhat in the manner of a drawbridge when the mouth is opened, when it appears like a small scaly boat, very transparent, furrowed beneath, and finely denticulated on the margins: this lower jaw, in the act of depression, draws forwards two flat, irregular laminæ of a scaly substance, a little bent at their posterior end, and larger at their origin than at their tips, denticulated on their anterior margin, and attached, one on one side, and the other on the opposite, to the most prominent part of the upper jaw: when the mouth is closed again, these pieces apply themselves on each side to one of the opercula, of which they represent the exterior denticulated border: in the middle of these jaws is placed the tongue, which is pointed and free in its movements: the gill-covers, which are composed of several pieces, are very transparent at the hind part, but scaly and of a bright silver-colour in front: the gill membrane is also silvery, and has five rays: the breast is terminated below by a sharp carina furnished with eight crooked spines: the carina of the belly is also furnished with twenty-eight spines, disposed in two longitudinal ranges: the anal fin is very long, and extends almost as far as the base of the tail-fin, which is of a forked shape: the dorsal fin is placed on the tail, properly speaking, at about three quarters of the whole length of the animal, but it is extremely small. The general length of this fish is three decimetres, and its colour, so far as may be conjectured from specimens preserved

for

for some time in spirits, is a bright silver. It is a native of the American seas, and is common about the coasts of Cayenne, where it ranks in the number of edible fishes.'

Coinciding with La Cépède, Dr. Shaw transfers *Callyonymus Baikalensis* of Pallas, and of Gmelin's edition of the *Systema Naturæ*, to *Comephorus*; though, apparently from oversight, he describes it again, with some variation of language, under the Gmelinian designation, and in the order of *jugulars*.

The general appearance of *Scomber gladius* of Bloch may apologize for its transference to the genus *Xiphias*; yet the finny processes beneath the breast, and above and below the tail, with the small prominences on each side of the latter, plead in favour of the original arrangement.

Stylephorus chordatus, as here described, would form an interesting extract: but it has already appeared in the Linnéan Transactions, and in the Naturalist's Miscellany. In its stead, therefore, we transcribe the article *Triurus*; which will, no doubt, be new to many of our readers:

'TRIURUS. TRIPLE-TAIL.

Generic Character.

Rostrum cylindricum.	*Snout* cylindric.
Dens unicus in utraque maxilla.	*Tooth* single in each jaw.
Pinna dorsi anique ultra caudam extensa.	*Fin* dorsal and anal extended beyond the tail.

'COMMERSONIAN TRIPLE-TAIL.

Triurus Commersonii. *T. orificio operculorum valvula clausili.*
Triple-tail with the branchial orifice closed at pleasure by a valve.
Le Triure Bougainvillien. *Cépède pisc.* 1. *p.* 201.

'The genus Triurus is instituted by Cépède from a remarkable fish discovered by Commerson in the Indian seas, and of which the following is the description. Its general appearance and size is that of a herring: the body is much compressed, and covered with scales, so small and deeply seated, that, at first sight, the animal appears destitute of any: the head, which is compressed as well as the body, and a little flattened above, is terminated by a very lengthened snout in form of a strait tube, at the end of which is a round hole by way of mouth, and which the fish has no power of closing: in the bottom of this tube are the two bony jaws, each composed of a single incisive and triangular tooth, no others being observable either on the palate or tongue, which latter is very short, cartilaginous, but rather fleshy at the tip, which is rounded: the nostrils are very small, and placed nearer to the eyes than to the tip of the snout: the eyes are moderately large, slightly convex, not covered by the common skin, as in the Gymnotes and some other apodal fishes, and the irides are of a bright gold and silver colour: the gill-covers are situated beneath the skin, and are each composed of an osseous lamina in form of a sickle: the gill-membrane is five-rayed, and is attached to the head or body round its whole contour,

contour, in such a manner as to leave but a small orifice just beyond the snout; in which respect it appears analogous to the Syngnathi or Sea-Needles, as well as to the Callyonimi and some other fishes; but what renders the Triurus most remarkable is, a particularity of which we find no example in the whole class of Pisces: this consists in a soft, fleshy, lunated valvule, attached to the anterior edge of the branchial orifice, which it closes at the pleasure of the animal, by applying itself to the posterior edge: the body is not marked by any lateral line; the belly is terminated beneath by a sharp keel almost throughout its whole length, and the vent is situated at the extremity of the abdomen: the pectoral fins are small, delicate, transparent, of an almost triangular form when expanded, and have twelve or thirteen rays: the vent-fin has fifteen soft rays, and is directed backwards, its sharp end stretching almost as far as the posterior edge of the tail-fin, of which it represents a continuation or appendix, and even seems to form a part: the dorsal fin is in the same manner a kind of auxiliary to the tail-fin: it is formed of an equal number of rays with the vent-fin, but is situated at a greater distance from the head, and is a third part longer, stretching backwards, not only as far as the tail, but beyond it; and as these two fins, viz. the dorsal and anal, reach that of the tail, it follows that the latter, at first view, appears as if composed of three distinct parts, and hence the name of Triurus, or Triple-Tail, applied to this fish by Commerson. In the mean time the real tail is so short that it appears more like a defective than a finished part, and is fringed at the edge by the terminations of the numerous, soft, divided rays of which it is composed. The colour of this fish is a brownish red, changing into silvery beneath the head, and into flesh-colour on the sides, belly, and tail, while a spot of clear white appears beyond the base of the pectoral fins. This curious genus was discovered by Commerson in the stomach of a species of Scomber; five individuals, perfectly uninjured by the action of the stomach, being taken out: several others were afterwards observed sporting on the surface of the sea. In some points this fish seems to bear a near alliance to the genus Centriscus.'

The alterations and additions in the second order are comparatively few. *Trachinus Osbeckii*, adopted from La Cépède, was first described by Osbeck, in his voyage to China.—*Gadus Leverianus*, distinguished by its sub-cinereous hue, and ocellated whitish spots, is presumed to be a native of the Southern ocean, since it was placed in a collection of fishes taken during Captain Cook's last voyage. The specimen from which the description was taken belongs to the Leverian Musæum.

Blennius fasciatus is described on the authority of Bloch, and *B. saliens* on that of La Cépède:

'This small species was observed by Commerson about the coasts of some of the Southern islands, and particularly those of New Britain, in the month of July 1768. It seems to be of a gregarious nature, and is seen swimming by hundreds, and as it were flying over the surface of the water, occasionally springing up and down with great rapidity among the rocks; it seems naturally formed for the celerity

celerity of its movements; the pectoral fins being very large in proportion to the body: they are nearly of a circular form when expanded, and when contracted reach almost as far as the vent on each side. This approach in point of form to the genera of *Pegasus*, *Trigla Scorpæna*, *Exocoetus*, and others posessed of the power of temporary flight, seems, as Cépède observes, naturally to indicate a similar property. The body is of a very lengthened form, and greatly compressed on the sides: the upper jaw longer than the lower, so that the mouth seems to be placed underneath: the eyes are seated near the top of the head, and are large and round, with gold-coloured irides; and on the occiput rises a cartilaginous longitudinal process, of a simple cylindric form, of about four millimetres in length: the colour of the body is brown, streaked with black, and the skin is extremely mucous or slippery. When dead, the colour frequently changes to a pale blue: there is no particular appearance of a lateral line, except what results from the longitudinal trace between the dorsal and lateral muscles.'

Under this genus, we have also to notice the *trifurcatus*, first described by Mr. Davies of Beaumaris, (the *punctulatus* of La Cépède,) from a specimen in the Parisian Musæum; and the *Boscianus*, from a specimen communicated to La Cépède by M. Bosc.

In the numerous order of *Thoracici*, we observe thirteen new genera, viz. *Gymnetrus*, *Vandellius*, *Macrourus*, *Gobiomorus*, *Acanthurus*, *Eques*, *Trichopus*, *Gomphosus*, *Ophicephalus*, *Lonchurus*, *Holocentrus*, *Bodianus*, and *Trachichthys*. Some of these are included in the Linnéan system under different appellations. This *Macrourus rupestris* corresponds to *Coryphæna rupestris*; *Gobiomorus* has been detached from *Gobius* on account of the separation of the rays of the ventral fins; *Acanthurus* includes those of *Chætodon*, which have broad and strong teeth; and *Eques Americanus* (*Chætodon lanceolatus*, Lin.) has received its new denomination from having the teeth disposed in concentric ranges.

'The Ascanian Gymnetrus is a native of the northern seas, and seems to have been first described by Professor Ascanius in his work entitled *Icones rerum naturalium*, &c. The length of the specimen was ten feet, and the diameter, which was equal throughout the whole length, about six inches: the head short, the mouth small, and the eyes rather large: on the upper part of the head, before the commencement of the dorsal fin, were situated seven or eight upright, naked rays or processes, of moderate length: the dorsal fin, which was rather shallow, commenced at a small distance beyond these, and running along the whole length of the back, formed by its continuation the tail fin, which was carried to a very small distance beneath the body, there being, properly speaking, no vent fin: the pectoral fins were very small, of a slightly ovate or rounded shape, and situated at a small distance from the head: the ventral fins, if they can be said to deserve the name, consisted of a pair of extremely long single rays or

processes terminated by a small ovate expanded tip or finny extremity: the gill-covers appeared to consist of five or six radiated laminæ: the colour of the whole body was bright silver with a blueish cast diffused over the upper part of the back: the lateral line was strongly marked, and ran from the gill-covers to the tail, and the sides of the body were marked by several longitudinal double rows of slightly extant, very small, dusky specks: the forehead was white; the fins pale brown.

'This fish is said to be generally seen either preceding or accompanying the shoals of herrings in the northern seas, for which reason it is popularly known by the title of *King of the Herrings.*'

Vandellius includes a single species, the *Lusitanian*, which is of rare occurrence in the Mediterranean and Atlantic seas.

Of the Indian *Remora*, *Echeneis Naucrates*, we are told on the authority of Commerson, that it is sometimes employed on the Mozambique coast, for catching turtle. 'A ring is fastened round the tail of the fish, in such a manner as to prevent its escape, and a long cord fastened to the ring. When thus prepared, the fish is carried in a vessel of sea-water, and when the boatmen observe a turtle sleeping, as is the frequent custom of those animals, on the surface of the water, they approach as near as possible without disturbing it; and then, throwing the Remora into the sea, and giving it the proper length of cord, it soon attaches itself to the breast of the sleeping turtle, which is thus easily drawn to the boat by the fishermen.'

The Rostrated Chætodon, a native of the fresh waters of India,

'Is celebrated for the extraordinary manner in which it takes its prey, which chiefly consists of the smaller kind of flying insects: when it observes one of these, either hovering over the water, or seated on some aquatic plant, it shoots against it from its tubular snout a drop of water, with so sure an aim as generally to lay it dead, or at least stupified, on the surface. In shooting at a sitting insect, it is commonly observed to approach within the distance of from six to four feet, before it explodes the water. When kept in a state of confinement in a large vessel of water, it is said to afford high entertainment by its dexterity in this exercise, since, if a fly or other insect be fastened to the edge of the vessel, the fish immediately perceives it, and continues to shoot at it with such admirable skill as very rarely to miss the mark.'

The bifasciated species is said to attain to a very considerable size, and to weigh upwards of twenty pounds. It is esteemed a delicate food, and resembles the sole in flavour.

The *Trichopus* genus is distinguished by a compressed body, and by ventral fins with a very long filament. The fifth species, denominated the monodactyle, being deprived of the long filaments, has been classed by La Cépède (and with more propriety

propriety than that gentleman sometimes evinces) as a separate genus.

The conterminous genera of *Sparus* and *Labrus*, of which the numerous species are mostly exotic, cannot be distinctly extricated without much minuteness of research, and many rare opportunities of investigation. It is generally allowed that Linné's enumeration is very imperfect. Dr. Shaw presents us with notices of upwards of 160 *Spari*, and thus concludes his descriptive catalogue:

'A general apology must here be made for any inaccuracies which in a tribe so numerous as the present may occasionally have crept into the descriptions; and it is by no means improbable that some of these fishes may in reality be rather varieties than species truly distinct. Some of those observed by Commerson, and described by the Count de Cépède, seem scarcely distinguished with sufficient accuracy, and indeed the specific characters in general, though composed with every possible attentfon to precision, must be regarded with a proper degree of indulgence. It is necessary to observe that in the present arrangement are included the genera of *Lutianus* and *Anthias*, as well as some of the Blochian Labri.'

The article *Labrus* is followed by a similar apology.

The intervening genus, *Gomphosus*, was instituted by La Cépède, and has its denomination from the lengthening of the jaws into a tubular spout. It contains two species, both natives of the Indian Seas.

A head coated with dissimilar scales, and a prolonged body, characterize *Ophicephalus*. The punctuated and striated are the only known species; both are natives of Indian rivers and lakes, and both are reckoned delicate food.

Lonchurus is discriminated by a scaly head, ventral fins with separated rays, and a lanceolate tail. Its only species is the bearded, which inhabits Surinam. The two preceding genera, which were formed by Bloch, are very nearly allied to *Sciæna*.

Holocentrus and *Bodianus* would require to be new cast, since their generic character are by no means sufficiently distinctive.

As an instance of Dr. Shaw's masterly delineation of a familiar subject, we shall transcribe his account of the Mackrel:

'SCOMBER MACKREL.

Generic Character.

Corpus oblongum, læve, linea laterali interdum carinatum.	*Body* oblong, smooth, sometimes carinated by the lateral line.
Pinnulæ sæpius supra infraque versus caudam.	*Finlets* (in most species) above and below, towards the tail.

Common Mackrel.

Scomber Scomber. *S. cæruleus, lineis numerosis transversis nigris, abdomine argenteo, pinnulis supra infraque quinque.*

Blue Mackrel, with numerous transverse black lines, silvery abdomen, and five finlets above and below.

Scomber. *Pliny.* Scomber Scomber. *Lin. Bloch. t.* 54.

Common Mackrel. *Penn. Brit. Zool. Will. ichth. &c. &c.*

'This beautiful fish is a native of the European and American seas; generally appearing at stated seasons, and swarming, in vast shoals, round particular coasts. Its great resort however seems to be within the Arctic circle, where it resides in innumerable troops, grows to a larger size than elsewhere, and is supposed to find its favourite food, consisting chiefly of marine insects, in far greater plenty than in warmer latitudes. During the severity of the northern winter it is said to lie imbedded in the soft mud beneath the vast crusts of ice surrounding the polar coasts; being thus sufficiently protected from the effects of frost; and, on the return of spring, is generally believed to migrate in enormous shoals, of many miles in length and breadth, and to visit the coasts of more temperate climates in order to deposit its spawn. Its route has been supposed nearly similar to that of the Herring; passing between Iceland and Norway, and proceeding towards the northern part of our own island, where a part throws itself off into the Baltic, while the grand column passes downwards, and enters the Mediterranean through the straits of Gibraltar.

'This long migration of the Mackrel, as well as of the Herring, seems at present to be greatly called in question: and it is thought more probable that the shoals which appear in such abundance round the more temperate European coasts, in reality reside during the winter at no very great distance; immersing themselves in the soft bottom, and remaining in a *state of torpidity* * ; from which they are awakened by the warmth of the returning spring, and gradually recover their former activity. At their first appearance their eyes are observed to appear remarkably dim, as if covered with a kind of film, which passes off as the season advances, when they appear in their full perfection of colour and vigor.

'The general length of the Mackrel is from twelve to fifteen or sixteen inches; but in the northern seas it is occasionally found of far greater size, and among those which visit our own coasts instances sometimes occur of specimens far exceeding the general size of the rest. The colour of this fish, on the upper parts, as far as the lateral line, is a rich, deep blue, accompanied by a varying tinge of green, and marked by numerous black transverse streaks, which in the male are nearly strait, but in the female beautifully undulated: the jaws, gill-covers, and abdomen, are of a bright silver-colour, with a slight

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'* Of this the Count de Cépède adduces the testimony of an eye-witness; viz. *Monsr. Pleville le-Peley*, who, about the coasts of Hudson's bay, observed the mud, at the bottom of the small clear hollows encrusted with ice round those coasts, entirely bristled over by the tails of Mackrels imbedded in it nearly three parts of their length.'

varying

varying cast of gold-green along the sides, which are generally marked in the direction of the lateral line by a row of long dusky spots: the scales are very small, oval, and transparent: the pinnules or spurious fins are small, and are five in number both above and below. The shape of the Mackrel is highly elegant, and it is justly considered as one of the most beautiful of the European fishes. Its merit as an article of food is universally established, and it is one of those fishes which have maintained their reputation through a long succession of ages; having been highly esteemed by the ancients, who prepared from it the particular condiment or sauce known to the Romans by the title of *Garum*, and made by salting the fish, and after a certain period, straining the liquor from it. This preparation, once so famous, has been long superseded by the introduction of the Anchovy for similar purposes.'

Trachichthys Australis is re-copied from the Naturalist's Miscellany, without any softening of its harsh generic name.

Our observations on the general merit of the former parts of this system of Zoology will, in most respects, apply to the present continuation; and the greater obscurity and difficulty of the subject will, in some measure, account for the diminished interest with which we have perused the volume before us. The very nature of the element which fishes inhabit prevents us from following their motions with exactness, from studying their characters, and from noting with fidelity their specific differences. Their colours often vary according to the accidental circumstances of age, sex, climate, season, breeding, &c. and many of them vanish in the open air, or with the principle of life. On the same shores, unknown species seldom occur; and, when they do, they may pass unnoticed by the illiterate fisherman. At the same time, it will not be denied that Artedi, Gronovius, Pallas, Muller, Brunnick, Broussonet, and many other distinguished naturalists, had removed various obstacles, and greatly promoted the science of Ichthyology; and a more diligent revival of their valuable writings, and of the detached memoirs of Guldenstaedt, Baster, Kolreuter, Klein, Osbeck, &c. might have furnished a more ample and pleasing fund of information. The plates, too, are evidently inferior to those which represent the quadrupeds; and we have occasionally stumbled on instances of careless composition. These circumstances we note with real concern; being desirous that a work which reflects so much honour on the author, and which promises to be a valuable repository of our present state of knowlege with respect to animated nature, should be conducted and completed with the smallest possible alloy of blemishes and defects.

The fifth volume will conclude the history of Fishes, and will speedily appear.

Muir...a.

ART. IV. *Travels from Moscow, through Russia, Germany, Switzerland, France, and England.* By Nicolai Karamsin. Translated from the German. 3 Vols. 12mo. 15s. Boards. Badcock. 1803.

IF we have faithfully accompanied this northern traveller through the whole of his progress, without deriving much new or important information, we cannot forget that he is a native of Moscow, and that he performed his tour before he had attained his twenty-fifth year. To many persons his sentimental manner may appear affected, or over-strained; yet his letters are seldom dull; and sometimes they are agreeably enlivened by natural painting, interesting anecdotes, or notices of eminent literary characters.

Perhaps the first part of these peregrinations is the best calculated to afford entertainment, or to gratify curiosity. When the author's fancy pictured the felicity of rambling in foreign countries, his heart seems not to have admonished him of the bitter regrets which he must leave behind him; and unfortunately for his readers, the precious and mournful recollections of kindred and friendship rush on the mind of the susceptible youth at the very moment of departure, and disqualify him for making a single topographical remark during a journey of some hundred miles. 'Farewell,' says he, very pathetically, 'till Petersburgh!' This compendious mode of journalizing reminds us of a little travelling anecdote:—Two English gentlemen had agreed to proceed post from Calais to Paris; and the most obtuse and sleepy of the two, at the end of every short nap, saluted his companion with, *How do you do now, Sir?*—until the tiresome question was at length abolished by, *Very well, I thank you, Sir; all the way to Paris.* Mr. Karamsin, however, is no plodding traveller; for he advises lovers of geographical and statistical inquiry to consult Busching rather than his own letters: but, though this may be very disinterested on his part, we must beg leave to suggest that Busching's Geography is a very dull and cumbersome book, not over-correct, and very inadequate to an accurate delineation of the present state of European countries. We could, therefore, have desired that, in accommodation to those who are not deeply conversant with the state of his native country, Mr. K. had blended some local intelligence with his plaintive adieus.—At Petersburgh, he exclaims, 'When shall I be happy again! Hitherto, I have experienced nothing but grief.'

A seasonable instance of unaffected hospitality, which occurred on the road to Riga, and which is gratefully recorded, appears to have produced something like composure of feeling in the

the breast of the tender Moscovite; and he was now enabled to pass his strictures on the postillions, and on the character of the Livonians.

'I perceive no difference between the Esthonians and the Livonians, excepting their language and dress. The former wear black, and the latter grey clothes; their language is quite different, the Livonians have many of the German and some Slavonian words; I have noticed that they pronounce all their German words very soft, and this seems to argue that they have a very refined and delicate ear. But when we observe their slowness, laziness, and awkwardness, we must be satisfied of their being blockheads. Those noblemen with whom I had an opportunity of speaking on the subject, reproached them with laziness, and called them a nation of drones, who would do nothing but by compulsion; and probably not a little compulsion is employed, for they labour very hard, and a peasant in Livonia or Esthonia yields his master four times as much profit as one of our Casan or Simbirsk peasants. These poor people, who work the whole week through penury and compulsion, are at the same time extremely merry on holidays; of those, alas! they have however but few in their calendar.'

In this picture, we discern traits which do not exactly coincide with our notions of a *race of blockheads*. In every country which is imperfectly civilized, the lower classes of the community are inclined to indolence, unless stimulated by the dread of punishment, or the prospect of immediate gain. The inhabitants of remote and mountainous districts pass much of their savage life in sluggish repose: yet we should not form a very correct estimate of their character, were we to question their mental acuteness, or even their bodily activity, when objects are presented which rouse their energies, or operate on their sense of honour. Nor is a peasant, who 'labours very hard,' and who is extremely 'merry on holidays,' to be wantonly classed among the most stupid of his species.

During one of his nocturnal stages, the author 'fell asleep, and consequently made no observations till he awoke:' then it was, that the sight of another travelling carriage, in the court-yard of the inn, gave rise to the following very sage remark: 'I felt a satisfaction, as I said to myself, "there must of course be more travellers," and instantly fell asleep again.'

According to the laudable practice of sentimental tourists, Mr. K. is very careful to note when he took tea and coffee, dinner and supper. The latter, however, we must observe, was once or twice sacrificed to a sight of the setting sun, and the contemplation of the stars; and our readers are also to be informed that he who could thus resolutely forego a smoking repast, in order that he might indulge in evening meditation in the open air, was not to be deterred from the precincts of learning or

wisdom, by the want of unmeaning formalities. At Königsberg, accordingly, the writer of these Travels boldly introduced himself to the *all-crushing Kant*, and prolonged his visit beyond three hours. 'Kant talks quick, low, and unintelligibly, and I had the greatest difficulty to understand what he said.' We may add that there are many who experience equal difficulty in understanding what he writes.

A parcel of rusty weapons and coats of mail produce a reverie more than an hour long; and the public are favoured with the result in the form of an apostrophe, which appears to us nearly as mysterious as the Kantian metaphysics. 'Where are ye, thought I, ye dark ages of barbarism and heroic atchievements? Our enlightened period retreats with terror before your gloomy obscurity. The sons of inspiration alone ventured to call forth your shadows from the abyss of the past, (like Ulysses who summoned to the light the shadows of his friends from the dark mansions of death,) to preserve in their sublime compositions the remembrance of the wonderful vicissitudes of nations.'

The particulars relative to the death of Kleist, the poet, and the heroic patriot, are more deserving of quotation:

'In the year 1759, at the obstinate battle of Kunnersdorf, he commanded a battalion, took three batteries, and led his soldiers towards the fourth, under the most tremendous fire of artillery. He lost two fingers from his right hand. But at the moment when the gallant Kleist was mounting the enemy's battery, a ball crushed his foot. He fell, crying out to his soldiers, My lads, do not abandon your king! The Cossacks came up, stripped him, and threw him into a ditch. It will scarcely be credited, but even at this moment he laughed heartily at the singular physiognomy and awkwardness of a Cossack, who was stripping him. He at length fell asleep through fatigue, and slept as sound as if he was in his own tent. In the night he was found by the Russian hussars. They carried him to a dry place, and laid him on some straw before a fire, covered him with their cloaks, and one of them even put some dollars into his hand. But as he would not accept of this present, the hussar threw them angrily upon the cloak, and rode off with his comrades. Towards morning, Kleist saw one of our officers, Baron Budberg, and told him his name and rank, upon which the Baron instantly ordered him to be conveyed to Frankfort, where his wounds were dressed. Here he conversed quite cheerfully with the philosopher *Baumgarten*, some other learned men, and our officers, who visited him. In a few days he died with the fortitude of a stoic. All our officers at Frankfort attended his funeral. One of them observing there was no sword on the coffin, instantly placed his own upon it, saying, such a gallant officer should not be interred without a sword. Kleist is one of my favourite poets. The spring would not have such charms for me, if *Kleist* and *Thomson* had not so admirably described its beauties.'

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The account of Berlin is rather long, but offers little that can arrest liberal curiosity. Though here, as at other places, the author discovers great solicitude to become acquainted with the literati, his reports inspire us with no transcendant reverence for their sentiments and talents. We are, however, sufficiently aware that the character of a scholar, or of a philosopher, is not to be appreciated by a few accidental interviews; and that, in the company of a professed traveller, he may assume more than his wonted reserve. On turning to the author's own meditations, we find him asserting, with due solemnity, that a fine meadow, a noble wood, a handsome female, 'in short, every thing fine, pleases' him. Here we think of the sage agriculturist, who, after mature deliberation and many experiments, gave it as his decided opinion that the best food for young calves was their mothers' milk;—and, in the plenitude of conviction, we proceed to Leipsig.

Of the *savans* within and without the walls of this celebrated city, Plattner and Weisse seem to have attracted the writer's fondest regards: but the celebrated impostor Schröpfer is not forgotten. With Mr. K.'s leave, we shall introduce him to our readers:

'He was for a long time waiter in a coffee-house at *Leipzig*, and nobody observed any thing extraordinary in him. He disappeared of a sudden, and it was not till several years after that he again made his appearance at *Leipzig*, in the character of baron *Schröpfer*. He took a large house, hired a great number of servants, and puffed himself off as a *sage*, to whom all nature, and even the world of spirits, were subject.

'By pompous promises of splendid discoveries he allured a multitude of credulous people, and pupils thronged to him from all quarters. Some actually expected to learn things of him, that cannot be acquired at any university; others were delighted with the excellent table he kept. He frequently received by post large parcels, addressed to baron *Schröpfer*. Several bankers received orders to pay him large sums. He spoke of his secrets, which he pretended to have learned in *Italy*, with a seductive eloquence; and he shewed people the spirits and shadows of their deceased acquaintance. When he had heated the imaginations of his hearers, "Come and see!" he cried, to all who were inclined to doubt; they came, and actually saw shadows, and various terrible sights, which made the hair of timorous persons stand on end. It must be observed, that his warmest adherents were not men of learning, or such as were accustomed to logical deductions; for people who placed more reliance on their understanding than on their senses, would not at all suit *Schröpfer*'s purpose. Thus his pupils consisted entirely of noblemen and merchants, who were totally ignorant of the sciences. He exhibited the wonders of his art to others, but he taught them to none, and at last, he only performed his miracles at home, in private apartments prepared for the purpose.

Br.

Br. told me the following anecdote of him:—A certain *M.* likewise came in company with his friends to *Schröpfer*, to see his apparitions. He found a great number of guests there before him, who were incessantly plied with punch. *M.* refused to drink any thing, but *Schröpfer* pressed him very much to drink at least a glass, which *M.* as firmly refused. At length they were all conducted into a large hall, hung with black cloth, the window shutters of which were closed. *Schröpfer* placed the spectators together, and drew a circle around them, beyond which he strictly enjoined them not to stir. At the distance of a few paces a small altar was erected, on which burned spirits; this cast the only light that illuminated the room. *Schröpfer*, uncovering his breast, threw himself on his knees bfore the altar. He held in his hand a large glistening sword, and prayed with a loud voice, and with such earnestness and warmth, that *M.* who had come with the intention of unmasking the impostor and the imposture, felt in his heart a pious awe, and sentiments of devotion. Fire flashed from the eyes of the supplicant, and his breast was powerfully agitated. He was to call the shadow of a well-known character lately deceased. After having finished the prayer, he called the ghost with the following words: "Oh! thou departed spirit, who livest in an immaterial world, and invisible to the eyes of mortals, hear the voice of the friends thou hast left behind, and who desire to see thee; leave, for a short time, thy new abode, and present thyself to their eyes!" Hereupon the spectators felt in every nerve a sensation, similar to an electric shock—heard a noise like the rolling of thunder, and saw above the altar a light vapour, which grew thicker by degrees, till it assumed the figure of a man. However *M.* observed, that it was not a striking likeness of the deceased. The figure hovered over the altar, and *Schröpfer*, pale as death, flourished the sword above his head. *M.* resolved to step out of the circle and to go to *Schröpfer*; but the latter, perceiving his intention, rushed towards him, holding the sword to his breast, and crying with a terrible voice, "You are a dead man, if you stir another step!" *M.* was so terrified at the dreadful tone in which *Schröpfer* uttered these words, and at the glistening sword, that his knees shook under him. The shadow at length disappeared, and *Schröpfer* was so fatigued that he lay extended on the floor. The spectators were conducted into another room, where they were served with fruits. Many of the more sensible people went to *Schröpfer*'s house as to a theatre; they knew that his boasted art was nothing but imposture, yet they were delighted with the serious comedy which he performed.

'This continued for some time; but *Schröpfer* all at once got into debt with several trades-people of *Leipzig*, and unfortunately of that class who did not wish to see his ghosts; but were extremely importunate for their money. He received no more bills. The bankers would not advance him a penny; and the miserable magician, worked up to the highest degree of despair, shot himself through the head in the *Rosenthal*. Nobody knows to this day how he got his money; and for what purpose he played off his phantasmagoria.'

Before we have well recovered from our astonishment at this man's quackery, we are called to admire a curious specimen

men of Russian gallantry. Till we perused the passage, we could not have imagined that a young gentleman, who delights to strew his way with tender sensibilities, would peruse his *Vicar of Wakefield*, rather than converse with a pretty girl entrusted to his protection. As his manner, like his conduct, on this occasion, is at least singular, we shall again allow him to speak for himself:

'The post-coach stopped at a house in a small town on this side of *Hirschfeld*, which I conceived to be, as usual, a public house. I walked in, and asked of the first that came towards me, with a low bow, for some Rhenish wine and water. I then threw myself into a chair, without thinking of pulling off my hat. In the room were four men, who conversed very civilly with me. A bottle of Rhenish wine was brought. I drank and praised the wine, and at last asked what I had to pay. "Nothing," answered a man, bowing at the same time, "you are not in a public house, but the guest of an honest burgher, who is extremely glad that you like his wine." Imagine my amazement! I pulled off my hat, and began to apologize. "It is not worth mentioning," said my host; "I request only your kindness for my daughter, who is going to accompany you." To which I replied, "I will treat her with politeness—with honor—and every thing you please." The daughter, a pretty girl of twenty, dressed in a green surtout, with a black hat, entered the room. We bade adieu, got into the coach, and set off. *Caroline* (that was her name) told me, that she was going to her aunt in a neighbouring village. That I might not trouble her with farther questions, I took the *Vicar of Wakefield* from my pocket. My fellow-traveller yawned, and could scarcely keep her eyes open. At last she fell fast asleep, with her head upon my shoulder. I durst not stir, for fear of waking her; but a sudden and violent shake of the coach threw her to the other corner. I offered her my large pillow, which she took and placed under her head, and fell asleep again. Meantime it grew dark. *Caroline* slept soundly, and did not awake till we reached the place where we parted. As to me, I behaved more honorably than even the virtuous knight, who is afraid of offending, by an immodest look, the bashful innocence entrusted to his care. Such examples, my friends, are rare, very rare in this age! *Caroline*, in her innocence, did not think it necessary to thank me for my reserve, and took leave of me rather coolly. God be with her!'

The remarks on Frankfort, Mentz, Stasburg, Bâle, &c. are mostly superficial, or trite. At Breig, however, we are treated with an adventure, which is related with much graphic humour, and which its length alone precludes from a place among our quotations.—The little excursion from Zurich to a neighbouring parsonage-house is likewise sketched with pleasing interest.

Of the late amiable but enthusiastic and excentric Lavater, the notices are particularly engaging. His printed and MS. works

works exceed fifty volumes. Some of the former were addressed and communicated only to friends; and his private journal was accessible to none. He made it a rule never to read the opinions of others concerning any of his works.

'Every day augments my admiration of *Lavater*; he has not an hour's leisure, and the door of his closet is never shut. Hither throng beggars asking charity,...the afflicted who seek consolation,...travellers who, though they want neither, at least contribute to occupy his time. Besides, he visits the sick not only of his own parish, but likewise of many others. This evening, after writing several letters, he took his hat, and requested me to accompany him. I should like to see where he is going to, thought I, and followed him. We went out of one street into another, and at length through the gate of the town. We arrived at a small village and entered a cottage. "Is Anna yet alive," demanded Lavater, of an old woman who came to meet us. "She scarcely breathes," replied she, with a flood of tears; and opened the door of a chamber; where I beheld, in a bed, an aged and emaciated woman, whose wan and livid countenance bespoke the near approach of death. Two boys and two girls stood round the bed and wept. The moment they saw Lavater, they ran and kissed his hands. He approached the patient, and asked her how she did. "I am dying! I am dying!" she replied, but was unable to say more. Her eyes were fixed on her bosom, which heaved with inward convulsion. Lavater sat down beside her, and began to prepare her for her departure. "Thy hour is come;" said he, "thy Saviour awaits thee. Be not afraid of the grave! Not thou, but only thy mortal body, will be deposited in it. In the moment when thy eyes are closed to the light of this life, the glorious morning of an eternal and better life will shine upon thee. Be thankful to God that thou hast attained a good old age, and hast seen thy children and grand children grow up, matured in honesty and virtue. They will for ever bless thy memory, and will once embrace thee with raptures in the mansion of the blessed. There, there, we shall all form but one happy family." These last words he uttered in a tremulous voice, and wiped his eyes. He then prayed, blessed the dying sinner preparatory to her exit, and took his leave. He kissed the children, told them not to weep, and at his departure gave them some money. The dejection of my heart was very great, and even the pure evening air could scarcely restore me to a free respiration.

"Whence do you derive such strength and patience?" said I to Lavater, in admiration at his indefatigable activity. "My dear friend," replied he, smiling, "it is in the power of every one to perform a great deal if he will; and the more he does, the more ability and inclination he will find for active exertion."

'Believe not, my friends, that Lavater, who does so much good to the poor, is himself possessed of great riches. No; on the contrary, his income is very small; but from the sale of his printed works and manuscripts he acquires a considerable sum for the relief of his indigent brethren. I have myself bought two of his manuscripts; one is entitled, "An Hundred Secret Physiognomical Rules;" with the motto,

"Never

'Never ridicule misery, or the means of alleviating it;" and the other is "A Monument for Travellers." For the latter he would not take the money himself, but ordered me to pay it to a poor Frenchman who had requested relief of him.'

Many of the letters from Geneva and the Swiss towns derive their chief attractions from allusions to living characters, among whom Bonnet justly holds a distinguished rank: but we suppress many particulars, that we may make room for the following love history:

'*Becker* has arrived in *Geneva.* We met each other by accident in the street, and rushed into each other's arms, like old friends, embracing after a long absence. Since that time we see each other daily; we walk out together, and drink tea at the fire-side. He has hired apartments in the same street where I live. His countrymen, the Count *Moltke,* and the poet *Baggesen,* have staid at *Berne.* The latter will soon be married. This match has been brought about in a truly romantic manner. I wrote to you, that *Becker* had gone with him to *Lausanne*; from which place they crossed the *Alps* to *Unterseen,* and arrived there extremely fatigued. They hired a boat to cross the lake of *Thun;* and at the moment when the waterman was pushing off the boat, a young female, and an old man, made their appearance; the girl in a white dress, a green hat, and with a stick in her hand; and seemed to be about twenty.—Her countenance was pleasing and friendly. She approached and nimbly jumped into the boat; and with a friendly *bon jour, messieurs,* addressed the travellers, who sat, hanging down their heads, *like knights of the melancholy figure.* They were surprized at this unexpected appearance, and stared, now at the girl, now at each other, and almost forgot to return the compliment of the charming stranger. However, *Becker,* who is a man deserving of credit, assures me they answered her tolerably well; though the count stammered at the second word, and he and *Baggesen* were struck quite dumb. By degrees, when they were at a considerable distance from shore, they fell into conversation. The girl told the Danes, that she had been at her uncle's at *Unterseen,* to visit her good nurse, who was very ill, and that she was now returning to *Berne.* "How did you leave the patient?" asked the sympathizing travellers, with great eagerness. "God be thanked! she is better," replied the fair stranger. She then enquired the names and residence of her fellow-travellers; and, when she learned that the count was the grandson of the late Danish Minister, she began to speak of that venerable man, and the history of his time, in such a manner, that it was evident she was acquainted with the history and relations of the powers of Europe. They landed at *Thun.* The count gave her his hand, and accompanied her, together with his fellow-travellers, to the inn, where they found a room. Here they learned from the hostess, that their charming companion was a grand-daughter of the celebrated philosopher and poet *Haller. Baggesen* leaped for joy, and instantly hastened to her, to recommend himself anew to her favour, and to assure her of the unbounded regard which he entertained for her grandfather. "Ah! you should have known him more intimately," said she, in a tone of

the highest sensibility. "Even in his old age, he fascinated great and small by his amiable disposition. I cannot refrain from tears when I recollect with what gaiety and familiarity he played with us small children, in his leisure-hours, after the most serious labours for the welfare of mankind. How often did he take me on his knee, kiss me, at the same time calling me his dear *Sophia!*"

'The amiable *Sophia* dried her tears, and *Baggesen* wept with her. Our travellers forgot their fatigues, and passed the whole evening with *Sophia Haller.* As they intended to set off the next morning early for *Berne*, and *Sophia* and her uncle were going to make some stay at *Thun*, they took leave of them—"Shall it be for ever?" said the young count; and, full of expectation, fixed his eyes on *Sophia*'s. *Baggesen*'s looks, animated by the most lively expression of tenderness, lingered on her lips, and *Becker* stretched forward his head. She smiled; and, presenting her card to the count, "This," said she, "is the address of my family, who will be very happy to receive such amiable travellers." The Danes thanked her with warmth, and retired to the room which had been prepared for them.

'The day after their arrival in *Berne*, they hastened to pay their respects to Miss *Haller*. They found her not at home, but were received very politely by the uncle and aunt. "Will Miss *Haller* not soon return? Will Miss *Sophia* be from home long? Shall we soon have the pleasure of seeing our amiable fellow traveller?" To all these questions the uncle and aunt were obliged to answer a hundred times. At length she returned. The Danes could not forbear the most joyful exclamations. She welcomed them as acquaintances; which made her appear in their eyes still more charming and amiable. The Count, *Baggesen*, and *Becker*, all wanted to speak to her,—all put questions to her at the same time. She replied to one with words, to the other by a smile, and the third by a nod; and all three were satisfied. Towards evening a walk was proposed. Male and female friends assembled; but the Danes saw and heard only *Sophia*. At length they parted, after having made the appointment to see each other again the next day. The second, third, and fourth day, were spent in the same way. At last, *Becker* perceived he was not the first in the favour of *Sophia*. He moderated his warmth in conversation with her, and resigned all claims to her partiality. The Count, who perhaps perceived the same, became dull, and soon entirely ceased his visits to *Sophia*. To dissipate his melancholy, he sought all kinds of social amusements. As to *Baggesen*,—perhaps only the poetess of *Lesbos* loved her *Phaon* with such a passion as he loved his *Sophia*; and scarcely could the inspired *Pythia*, on her golden tripod, have been so beside herself as our young poet, when his lips hung upon her hand. Each of his words was animated by profound sensibility when he spoke of her, and that sensibility was like a powerful flame. He durst not tell her, I love you; but the tender *Sophia* understood him, and did not remain indifferent. Her gaiety and vivacity diminished; she was frequently lost in deep thought, and her eyes sparkled. They often walked out in the evening in the avenues of the platform, and the thick foliage of the chesnut-trees, and the rays of the full moon witnessed their virtuous intercourse; till at length the platonic lover,

lover, on one of these fine evenings, threw himself on his knees before *Sophia*, seized her hand, and exclaimed, "It is mine!—thy heart is made for mine! – we will be happy." "It is thine," replied *Sophia* with a look of tenderness; "It is thine; and I hope to be happy with thee!"

'I leave to an abler hand the description of this moment! The same evening the family of *Haller* embraced *Baggesen* as *Sophia*'s bridegroom, and their friend. The wedding day was fixed. The poet now enjoys the beauteous dawn of that happiness which awaits him in the arms of his beloved wife; and praises in raptures the lake of *Thun*, where his eyes first beheld her. and where his heart loved her at first sight. Meantime Count *Moltke* has become quite tranquil, and rejoices at the felicity of his friend; as does *Becker* too, who related to me this history as I have written it to you.'

The description of the hospital at Lyons is creditable to the author's feelings: but we are inclined to believe that more praise is ascribed to the managers, on the score of cleanliness, than facts will justify.

We forbear to dwell on the state of Paris and its neighbourhood in 1790. Mr. K.'s last letter from that too celebrated capital describes his departure from it in terms of high praise and deep regret; and he says, 'my mind is still so full of the past that I do not think of the future at all: I am travelling to England, yet my imagination has not thought on that country even for once.' That this last assertion is strictly conformable to truth, we cannot readily believe. Neither have we learnt, even from Busching's Geography, that, when the fruit is ripe in the *ci-devant* Isle of France, the trees are only in blossom about Boulogne.—A straight of twenty-one miles, which separates two bold and white shores, rather militates against the propriety of the following expression: 'The French coast has vanished from our sight, and the English begins to rise before us in the distant horizon.'

In the course of the same epistle, we are told that 'the English in general do not much care about sallad, and garden herbs. Roast beef and beaf-steaks are their usual food; and hence their blood becomes thick, and themselves phlegmatic, melancholy, and not unfrequently self-murderers. To this predisposing cause of the spleen,' (continues the sagacious Moscovite) 'we may add the following, viz. the mists continually rising out of the sea, and the smoke of the pit-coal, which hangs like a dense cloud over the towns and villages.'

Again;

'I sent for a barber, and they brought me a thick phlegmatic Englishman, who, having first unmercifully flayed my face, plaistered my head with flour and tallow. "Alas! I am no longer in Paris," said I to myself, with a sigh, "where the powder-puff of the inge-

nious lively Rulet played like a gentle zephyr around my head, and strewed it with a resplendent white aromatic rime." To my complaints that he was flaying me, that his pomatum stunk, and that his hair-powder was only coarse flour, the unpolished English barber sullenly answered, "I don't understand you, Sir!"—

Gentle reader, wouldst thou learn the fate of the rich Englishman—know that he 'travels, becomes a virtuoso, a man of taste and a collector; launches out into every species of extravagance, marries a wife, and at last shoots himself—and all this merely from *ennui.*'

How often are we indebted to foreigners for our instruction! Till favoured with a perusal of the third volume of these Travels, it had not occurred to us that the ascent to the top of Mont Blanc is less fatiguing than mounting to the second gallery of St. Paul's Cathedral, even though accompanied by a lively French Marchioness. Nay, we were ignorant that the President of the Royal Society, when seated in his chair of office, 'passed judgment on several works, but with great candour and moderation.' That we may not fall short of such an illustrious pattern, we shall conclude with thanking Mr. Karamsin for the agreeable entertainment which he has afforded us in this land of beef-steaks, mist, and smoke; and with assuring him that, though the journal of his tour retains abundant marks of youth and levity, it is not, on that account, less calculated to chace spleen and melancholy from the critical tribunal.

The translator has apparently executed his task with tolerable success. A few sentences, however, are oddly dislocated, and the punctuation is often inaccurate and deficient.

Muir.

ART. V. *Poems on various Subjects;* by Mrs. Grant, Laggan. 8vo. pp. 447. 10s. 6d. Boards. Printed at Edinburgh; sold in London by Longman and Co.

THE verses by which these compositions are ushered to the public are a favourable foretaste of the entertainment which the reader may expect:

'Go, artless records of a life obscure,
Memorials dear of loves and friendships past,
Of blameless minds from strife and envy pure;
Go, scatter'd by *Affliction's* bitter blast,
And tell the proud, the busy, and the gay,
How rural peace consumes the quiet day.

'Oh ye, whom sad remembrance loves to trace,
Look down complacent from your seats above,
Regard with soft compassion's melting grace,
The simple offering of surviving love:

For,

For, while I fondly think ye hover near,
Your whisper'd melody I seem to hear.

'Ye dear companions in life's thorny way,
Who see your modest virtues here display'd,
Forgive, for well you know the unstudied lay
Was only meant to soothe the lonely shade.
But, when the rude thorn wounds the songster's breast,
The lengthen'd strains of woe betray her secret nest.'

Of the smaller pieces, we may observe that many scarcely equal these stanzas, though a few may be allowed to surpass them.

The longest poem in the collection is intitled '*The Highlanders.*' To sketch the bold and magnificent features of mountain-scenery, and to catch a picture of characteristic manners, prejudices, and virtues, before they are diffused and obliterated in the mass of assimilating improvement, form a design worthy of the philosopher, and, at the same time, peculiarly susceptible of poetical embellishment. Mrs. Grant, who appears to have passed a considerable portion of her life in the recesses of Inverness-shire, had many opportunities of contemplating the physiognomy of the country, with the intellectual, moral, and religious character of its inhabitants. In this poem, her professed aim is to paint Highland scenery and manners, mingled with reflections on emigration; yet moral and common-place views of an active life, as contrasted with habits of soft repose and frigid selfishness, occupy too much space in the first and last parts of the poem. The object to be desired in a performance of this description is appropriate colouring, not general and trite morality. That active, laborious, and generous dispositions pre-eminently distinguish the Scottish Highlanders from the Lowlanders remains, perhaps, to be proved. Impartial travellers, who have visited both districts of country, have more than once remarked that, unless roused by some powerful excitement, the Highlander is inclined to indolence, and will sit with folded arms, when his wife or his daughter is engaged in those offices of drudgery, which the consent of civilized society has assigned to the stronger sex. Slovenly, too, in his external habits, and more shrewd than open in his ordinary transactions, the Highlander seems by no means intitled to the exclusive praise which our fair author so gratuitously bestows on him. With her we lament the removal of any number of a hardy race of rustics to foreign and distant settlements: but might they not find employment in our flourishing towns and plains? We really cannot censure the proprietors of mountainous estates for adopting those measures which are dictated

by an extending commerce, and by those new relationships which have their origin in the progressive melioration of the human condition. Partial migrations, from the more remote and desolate to the fertile and peopled districts of our island, may bear hard on the local attachments and prejudices of individuals: but who would revive the barbarous splendour of feudal times? Or who, after having contemplated the boisterous climate and the wretchedness of the northern extremities of Great Britain, would not approve the introduction of extensive grazing farms, in preference to the painful culture of very precarious and very scanty crops of oats or barley? The migration of a highland tribe to a country different from our own must certainly be regarded as an evil, but not of such magnitude as to absorb all the sources of our pity.

'Nor let to Afric's wilds Compassion roam,
While modest Anguish weeps unseen at home.'

Such is our poet's request: but is it reasonable? Let us suppose for a moment that the removal of some hundred families from a poor to a rich country is a very direful calamity, would it follow that our sympathy must be measured by degrees of longitude and latitude? or that slavery does not originate with those who enact it?

"*Hear him*, ye Senates! hear this truth sublime;
"HE, WHO ALLOWS OPPRESSION, SHARES THE CRIME."

The provincial delineations, which are scattered through the other parts of Mrs. Grant's poem, strictly coincide with her plan; and, though not touched with the glowing colouring of a Collins or a Gray, they evince much amiable feeling and a creditable intimacy with the muses. We are pleased to follow the mountaineer through his various occupations and amusements, as they are regulated by the hours of the day, or the seasons of the year; and to contrast the simple and noiseless tenor of his existence with the bustle and the passions of a city life.

The episodical story of Farquhar wants compression; and gentle poesy should be allowed to euphonize such an unplastic name as *Moraig*, the heroine in this interlude. The allusions to the eventful history of the Pretender are, perhaps, too much multiplied and prolonged; and, since the facts are so generally known, a few forcible lines would have more effectually illustrated the fidelity of his adherents. Let it not be forgotten, however, that Mrs. Grant's notes on this subject may still be perused with interest; and that her muse is less tame than a certain courtly, but lulling historian of the Scottish rebellion

'Oh

'Oh tell, good father, tell what wretched lot
Befel the blameless inmates of thy cot:
Have they obey'd the victor's stern command,
Or fled for succour to some happier land?'

On this passage, we have an humane and spirited comment:

'When the veil of death has long covered the unfortunate, and the storm of party animosity subsided, people are judged as they shall be hereafter, by their intentions. Adhering to that rule, we must esteem the sufferer, and detest even that cruelty which was said to be exerted for our eventual advantage, as if, indeed, there could be any advantage drawn from insulting the fallen, robbing the poor, and destroying the unresisting, in whose warm and upright hearts, a little timely lenity would have produced endless gratitude; and whose loyalty might have been brought, by that means, to change its object without abating its force.'

Again,

'No voice of joy is heard, no smile is seen,
No rural pastime sports along the green;
But sad solicitude and shuddering fear,
And patient sufferance dwell in silence there;
No hopes of mercy to th' offending train—
Thy worth and wisdom, FORBES, plead in vain!'

'FORBES of CULLODEN, then President of the Court of Session; a man so rever'd for his wisdom, and beloved for his virtue, that his personal influence was beyond belief in such times as these; by dint of that influence, he prevented the northern tribes from rising *en masse*, as they were much inclined to do. He wrote circular letters, with great judgment and address, to all the heads of families on the PRINCE's landing, pointing out to those who could neither comprehend, nor attend to sound political argument, the inefficacy of their force and preparation, and the certain failure of an enterprize so rash and ill conducted. These, joined to his succeeding efforts, broke the force of the confederacy, and divided its councils. His liberality in supporting the royal cause injur'd his fortune; and the contemptuous coolness with which he was treated by the Young Conqueror, who could not brook the idea of sharing his merit with any one, broke his spirit;—and what completed his disgust was, that his lenient counsels, in the hour of success, were despised and neglected; many being put to death for whom he interceded. He might be justly included in the number of those patriots, who

"Clos'd their long glories with a sigh, to find
Th' unwilling gratitude of base mankind."

The character of this worthy patriot would have been still more exalted, had he triumphed over ingratitude itself:

"*Repandez vos bienfaits avec magnificence;*
Même au moins vertueux ne les refusez pas;
Ne vous informez point de leur reconnaissance,
Il est grand, il est beau de faire des ingrats.'

From the circumstances mentioned in the advertisement to the 'Journal from Glasgow to Laggan,' we scarcely deem it a fair subject of our strictures. We shall, therefore, refer our readers to the author's apology, *et valeat quantum valere potest.*

The death of Abercromby is a theme which no poet has hitherto duly commemorated; and our fair author must pardon us, if, on this occasion, we applaud her intentions more than her performance.

In 'A Familiar Epistle to a Friend,' we are playfully beguiled into the following elegance and refinement of sentiment:

'No longer pursue those fond lovers of fame,
Nor envy the honours and trophies they claim;
No further excursive to speculate roam,
But fix our attention and pleasure at home:
Why regret, when celebrity proves such a curse,
The cares of the mother and toils of the nurse:
While the nurse finds delight in sweet infancy's smiles,
And hope the fond mother's long trouble beguiles.
"But why these quick feelings, or why this nice ear
Or musical accents, if no one must hear?
Why blossoms of fancy all scatter'd to waste,
The glow sympathetic, or pleasures of taste?—"
Ask why in the mountains the flow'ret should blow,
Which none but the hermit is destin'd to know?
Why the wild woods re-echo with melody clear,
Which none but the hunter is destin'd to hear?
When often enjoyed, and but seldom they're shewn,
Our riches and pleasures are truly our own:
The milk maid that carols her wild native airs
To solace her labours, and lighten her cares,
Feels a pleasure more genuine and free from alloy,
Than CATLEY or MARA could ever enjoy:
Who, while their divisions they warbled aloud,
Depended for joy on the praise of the crowd;
Then blest be the lyre, ever sacred its strain,
In the regions of bliss let it waken again;
When the kind hand of Nature has fitted its strings,
And the dictates of truth and of virtue it sings,
As softly and sweetly it touches the mind,
As ÆOLUS' harp when 'tis mov'd by the wind;
Untainted by art were the notes it has sung,
It has cheer'd our decline, and has charm'd us when young;
And when useful employments demanded our prime,
Our leisure it soothed without wasting our time:
And when all our sorrows and toils shall be o'er,
Its music perhaps may delight us once more;
When swelling to concords more rich and sublime
It may rise beyond earth, and may live beyond time.

The

The blossoms I once so admir'd and caress'd,
That cheer'd my fond heart till they dy'd on my breast,
Which my tears that fell frequent, like soft silent rain,
Could not waken to life and new fragrance again;
There, again, in new sweetness and beauty shall bloom,
And the evergreen plain with fresh odours perfume;
Perhaps while exalted their graces shall rise,
Again their dear verdure shall gladden my eyes!
When the season of fear and of sorrow is o'er,
And our tears and our songs are remember'd no more!'

As expressions of simple feelings, we select a few stanzas from the poem on a Lady who was familiarly called *Moome*, an endearing appellation in the Gaelic language:

'Her fate awakes my former woes,
And bids them all their force resume,
Those griefs which once I could repose
Upon the faithful breast of MOOME.

'She clos'd my darling PETER's eyes,
When low I sunk, with grief o'ercome;
And sweet PETRINA's latest sighs
Were breath'd upon the knees of MOOME!—

'Her prayers and alms, and deeds of love,
Arose to heaven like sweet perfume,
And balmy comfort from above
Distill'd upon the heart of MOOME.—

'And when the mighty angel's voice
Shall wake the dreadful trump of doom,
Blest infant spirits shall rejoice
To meet the generous soul of MOOME.'

The 'Answer to a Poetical Apology,' &c. is well conceived, but would bear retrenchment.—Ease of numbers and elegant expressions of friendship distinguish the 'verses to Lady Clan.' The particular allusions will, no doubt, be highly gratifying to the parties concerned: but in the joys and sorrows of a private circle the public cannot cordially participate.

Introductory to the two 'Translations from the Gaelic,' are some very temperate, candid, and discriminating observations on the long agitated question of the authenticity of the Poems of Ossian. The fair author's own opinion, to which, from her opportunities of obtaining accurate information, we are disposed to pay considerable attention, may be collected from a few sentences:

'Old people can very well remember, before Mr. MACPHERSON ever thought of translating these remains, when many comparisons and allusions to be found in them, were as current as Scripture quotations in the last age among the peasants of the west. "She is beautiful as AGANDECCA the daughter of the snow—She is musical

as MALVINA—He is as forlorn as OSSIAN after the departure of the FINGALIANS—Such a one is alert and nimble as CUCHULLIN"—were phrases in common use. Whatever embellishments, or whatever anachronisms the injudicious vanity of a translator may have grafted on these poems, no person who lived in the country of their reputed author ever doubted their existence or antiquity; there, every stream and mountain, every tale, song, or adage, retained some traces of the generous hero, or the mournful bard: But there was little chance of getting at the truth of this question, while the contention lay betwixt learned pride on the one hand, and the national vanity on the other. The former was accustomed to consider letters, not as the vehicle, but the essence of knowledge, accounting all unlearned people utterly savage and barbarous, and unable to conceive how any one could entertain noble or generous sentiments without deriving them from classical models. The latter was unwilling to confess how little the Gaelic had been used in writing, and to what a narrow district of the kingdom it had been, even in remote ages, confined,—which was the real cause why no connected series of these poems had been written down, and why they had been so long hid in obscurity. To the same motive may be attributed the silent acquiescence of the Highlanders in the alterations and embellishments added to these poems, by a translator more ambitious of adapting them to modern taste, than of adhering strictly to the sense of the originals; more studious of his own advantage, than of the addition to be made to the science of human nature, by developing truly and closely the manners of the Heroic Age; by which I understand that intervening betwixt rude barbarity, and the regular establishment of law, property, and agriculture.'

The whole of this short dissertation, together with the animated and well drawn character of Burns (p. 256.), will amply reward the trouble of perusal.

In regard to the Translations themselves, we are not competent to judge of their fidelity: but we are not partial to Erse poetry, when reduced into regular English rhymes. *Prose run mad* is, perhaps, better suited to its bold and unconstrained spirit. Yet, in the second of these poems, intitled 'The aged Bard's wish', we meet with some well turned and affecting stanzas:

'Leave not my soul, O dream of joy!
O turn again, once more return!
They hear me not—My darling boy!
For thee, for her, not long I mourn!

'Now lay me close by yonder fall
That leaps in thunder o'er the rock;
My lyre and shell attend my call,
The spear my sires in battle shook.

'And come whence ocean's waters roll,
Ye breezes mild that softly blow,
And bear away my parting soul
Where sinks the sun at evening low.

" O bea

O bear me to the happy isles
  Where shades of mighty heroes rest,
Who, sunk in sleep, forgot their toils,
  Or wake the music of the blest.

'Blind OSSIAN's misty halls unfold:
  Your eyes no more the bard shall view:
Let me my harp and shell behold,—
  And now, dear harp and shell, adieu!'

From the preceding remarks and specimens, the reader has, perhaps, anticipated our sentiments on the general character of Mrs. Grant's poetry. The emotions, which her muse loves to awaken, are pleasing rather than grand; she is rather sweet and pathetic than animated or majestic; and, while we applaud the correctness and delicacy of her thoughts, we regret that they are so seldom adorned with bright and glowing imagery. We must add that the effect of some of her prettiest pieces is considerably enfeebled by expansion, and by an intemperate use of epithets. Notwithstanding these defects, however, the work deserves the liberal patronage which it has received from subscribers. In the event of a second impression, we would beg leave to call the author's attention to some blemishes, which, though trifling, are not always patiently endured, especially in poetry. The first which we shall notice is a too frequent use of pleonastic phraseology. Thus, we have '*Od'rous* buds *perfumed*,' '*listless torpor*,' '*glossy burnish* of *shining* hair,' '*sportive gambols*,' '*sportive glee*,' '*dank moisture*,' '*tranquil rest*,' '*lonely waste forlorn*;' and, more '*coercive force*'—which, if it mean any thing, must be "a vigour beyond the law."

Of lines harsh or prosaic, the number is not inconsiderable. We subjoin a few:

'To plod in dull mechanic sort their lot,
  And vegetate upon the self same spot.'

'While *raspberries* richly flavour'd climb on high.'

'Their honour's friends became their int'rest's foes.'

'In a false, treach'rous rival's cruel arms.'

'More difficult to clear than his Rev'rence's text.'

'Who strove their parents' spotless paths to trace.'

'And while that and large fires thro' the winter did glow.'

Three Alexandrines in the course of nine lines (p. 82.) have rather an Amazonian appearance; and five triplets in two pages (232 & 233.) display an obvious abuse of discretion.

Cull and *wool*, *store* and *poor*, *pale* and *meal*, *Thames* and *streams*, *look* and *spoke*, *star* and *sepulchre*, *hope* and *groupe*, &c.

will not pass as current rhymes.—The same word (*repose*) terminates the first and third line of the first stanza of 'Moome.' When a delegated member of a certain ecclesiastical court maintained that he *represented himself*, it was humourously observed that he would, no doubt, give great satisfaction to his *constituent*.

A few sentences are constructed without sufficient regard to grammatical accuracy. Thus, that beginning with, 'In every hamlet,' &c. (p. 39.) though of immoderate length, affords not a proper antecedent to 'Why Meteors glare,' &c. The pronouns *thou* and *you* are, in a few instances, carelessly interchanged. *Tracks* occurs for *tracts*, *wrote* for *written*, *forgot* for *forgotten*, *heather* for *heath*, *splits* for *splinters*, to *bandage* for to *bind*, &c. The accentuation of some words is likewise faulty: as, *travérse*, *áccess*, *súpport*, *respíte*, *sónorous*, *crávats*, *indústry*, *recórds*, &c.

The volume is handsomely printed on fine paper.

Muir.

ART. VI. *Dr.* Winterbottom's *Account of the Native Africans in the Neighbourhood of Sierra Leone*, &c.

[*Article concluded from the Rev. for May, p.* 90.]

THE first volume of this work, as we have already stated, was occupied by a detail of the manners and institutions of the native Africans, as far as the author could learn them from the publications of preceding writers, and from the opportunities of personal observation which a long residence at Sierra Leone afforded him. The second volume bears more of a professional character, being confined to an account of the ideas entertained in that part of Africa in which Dr. W. resided, respecting the nature of diseases, with the mode adopted for the cure of them. In prosecuting his inquiry, he first treats of the 'General Diseases to which both sexes are liable; 2dly, of the Diseases of Women, with the sexual peculiarities in Africa; 3. of the Diseases and Management of Children.' From the more important or interesting parts, we shall make a few extracts.

Fever is much less common among Africans, than among the Europeans who settle in that country. It is in general denominated from the principal symptoms accompanying it, and hence the use of the terms sick head, sick belly, &c. The former is one of the most frequent and distressing symptoms, and on this account it is that cephalics constitute a most numerous class of remedies in the African *Materia Medica*. Most of them are applied externally to the forehead. When they fail, cupping is sometimes tried, which is practised by an old woman;

man; who first makes a small number of incisions with a pointed knife in the skin, on the temples or forehead, as near as possible to the seat of pain, and then places over the incisions, a cup formed of a small gourd cut in two, the air being first rarefied by burning a little dry grass or cotton in it. 'It is a custom with some, when affected with head-ache, to lie upon the hearth before a large fire, having a heavy stone laid upon one side of the head.' Africans are very seldom affected with enlargements of the spleen, which occur so frequently among Europeans: but

'They are very subject to a species of lethargy, which they are much afraid of, as it proves fatal in every instance. The Timmanees call it márree, or, 'nluoi, and the Bulloms, nagónlôe, or kadeera: it is called by the Soosoos, kee kóllee kondee, or sleepy sickness, and by the Mandingos, seenoyúncaree, a word of similar import. This disease is very frequent in the Foola country, and it is said to be much more common in the interior parts of the country than upon the sea coast. Children are very rarely, or never, affected with this complaint, nor is it more common among slaves than among free people, though it is asserted that the slaves from Benin are very subject to it. At the commencement of the disease, the patient has commonly a ravenous appetite, eating twice the quantity of food he was accustomed to take when in health, and becoming very fat. When the disease has continued some time the appetite declines, and the patient gradually wastes away. Squinting occurs sometimes, though very seldom, in this disease, and in some rare instances the patient is carried off in convulsions. Small glandular tumors are sometimes observed in the neck a little before the commencement of this complaint, though probably depending rather upon accidental circumstances than upon the disease itself. Slave traders, however, appear to consider these tumors as a symptom indicating a disposition to lethargy, and they either never buy such slaves, or get quit of them as soon as they observe any such appearances. The disposition to sleep is so strong, as scarcely to leave a sufficient respite for the taking of food; even the repeated application of a whip, a remedy which has been frequently used, is hardly sufficient to keep the poor wretch awake. The repeated application of blisters and of setons has been employed by European surgeons without avail, as the disease, under every mode of treatment, usually proves fatal within three or four months. The natives are totally at a loss to what cause this complaint ought to be attributed; sweating is the only means they make use of, or from which they hope for any success: this is never tried but in incipient cases, for when the disease has been of any continuance they think it in vain to make the attempt. The root of a grass, called by the Soosoos kallee, and the dried leaves of a plant, called in Soosoo fingka, are boiled for some time in water, in an iron pot; when this is removed from the fire, the patient is seated over it, and is covered over with cotton cloths, a process which never fails to excite a copious perspiration. This mode of cure is repeated two or three times a day, and is persisted in for a considerable length of time, until the disease

be

be carried off, or appears to be gaining ground. No internal medicines are given in the complaint.'

Venereal complaints occur in various forms in Africa, but mostly in that of gonorrhœa. The author is convinced that there is no vegetable in use among them which possesses properties resembling mercury; and he assures us that, when they excite a salivation, which they do in every case of syphilis, it is only by means of mercury procured from Europeans.

The *coup de soleil*, or stroke of the sun, is unknown in Africa; though the natives are in the habit of exposing the head to the perpendicular rays of a scorching sun, during the greatest bodily exertions; and Europeans, under such circumstances, seldom have more than a thin handkerchief folded round the head.—Dysentery is a frequent complaint on shore, but more particularly prevails in slave ships, in which a considerable part of the unfortunate cargo has often been carried off by this serious malady:

'The natives of the Gold Coast have the credit of being very successful in the cure of this complaint. The chief medicine which they use in it is lime juice, to which is added some of their favourite capsicum or red pepper: this latter is so highly esteemed by them that it is used not only as a seasoning to their food, but enters largely into the composition of their medicines, and always constitutes the chief ingredient in their enemas.'

The most celebrated remedy is the bark of a large tree, called by the Foolas *Béllenda*, and by the Soosoos and Mandingos, *Bembee*. 'It is employed either in powder mixed with boiled rice, or is used in a strong infusion. This bark is an agreeable astringent, possessing somewhat of a sweetish taste.'—The author had not an opportunity of trying the effects of this medicine in dysentery, but he had seen it employed with advantage in diarrhœa. It has been used by Dr. Willan in London, in agues, fevers, sore-throat, and dysentery, much to his satisfaction.—In a subsequent part of his work, the author mentions some farther experiments on this bark, from which he is inclined to speak very favourably of its employment in intermittent complaints of various kinds.

A chapter is devoted to the consideration of Elephantiasis, of which the author has seen two cases, which he particularly describes. This and the succeeding chapter on Dracunculus, or Guinea-worm, and Chigres, contain much curious information, though it has been mostly derived from preceding writers.

A singular operation is practised in Rheumatism. When other means fail in relieving it,

'They make, with a sharp instrument, an incision upon one or both of the patient's legs, through the skin into the cellular membrane.

brane. Into this wound they introduce a hollow reed, or the stem of a pipe, and blow as much air as they think necessary, or as the patient can support. The wound is then covered with a piece of strongly adhesive plaster, and a mixture composed of pepper, lime-juice, brandy, and certain herbs, is administered to the patient. He is next ordered to run as violently as he can, and when overcome with fatigue, to betake himself to bed, where he remains a few days, being kept all the time in a profuse sweat. During this process a calibash full of the abovementioned drink is administered every day, until the artificial tumour has disappeared, and the patient feels restored to health. The tumor generally begins to decline perceptibly about the third day, and on the 9th, 10th, or 11th day, it is no longer to be seen. Sometimes this operation is repeated in the same patient, of which Gallandat relates instances; he adds, that several negroes, whom he knew, assured him that they were cured by this means.'

Gout is a disease wholly unknown in Africa; and Consumption is not a very general complaint: the decoction of a bitter bark, mixed with rice, is a celebrated remedy for the cure of it.

In a chapter on Yaws, Dr. W. describes the usual appearances of this complaint, as given by the natives, and by various authors, and annexes the history of some cases, which came under his own observation.

The diseases of Women are, as may be readily imagined, much fewer than in more polished countries. The whole tribe of hysterical and nervous complaints are total strangers among them. Their labours are in general easy, and in some parts of the coast it is considered as infamous for a woman to cry out during their continuance. They are trusted solely to nature, and it has therefore sometimes happened that a woman has died undelivered.

Concerning the management of Children, the author observes;

'It is very simple: their diseases are also few, and of no great importance: immediately after birth, the infant is washed in warm water, or soap and water; this is continued for a few days, after which cold water only is used. During very hot weather it is usual for the mother to throw a vessel of cold water upon the child's head two or three times a day, apparently to the satisfaction of the latter. After the morning ablution, the child is well greased from head to foot.

'Soon after a child is born, a few grains of malaguettu pepper are bruised, and tied up in a cotton rag, which is moistened with water, and the juice of it is pressed out into the child's mouth: this is done to evacuate the meconium. In order to strengthen a child born at the end of seven months, the mother takes every morning a mouthful of cold water, which she spirts upon the inside of the joints of the arms, wrists knees, and successively those of the whole body, immediately

diately after which the child is immersed in very cold water. This practice is repeated every morning until they suppose the child strong enough to bear the shock of cold water without any preparation.'

Dr. W. considers Dr. Zimmerman as having erred in stating that the newly born children of negroes are readily affected with trismus; since not a single instance of this complaint fell within his own observation, nor have the natives themselves any acquaintance with it. In the West Indies, however, the case is materially different; for it is supposed that a fourth of the negroe children are cut off by it.

Large protrusions of the navel are very common among negroe children; which, in the author's opinion, arise from relaxation of the parts, and the want of a bandage to support the umbilicus, till it has acquired a sufficient degree of firmness. Dirt-eating, which so often occurs in the West Indies, is also, we are informed, not unfrequent among the negroe children in Africa.

In an Appendix, together with the remarks on the African Bark, which we have noticed above, the author gives an account of circumcision as practised in Africa. He also annexes some observations on White's and Blumenbach's opinions on the supposed characteristics of the negroe race, and the rank which they bear in the scale of Creation. He adopts the opinion of the latter, and concludes that there are no original differences in mental or bodily conformation, between the negroe and the white.

Yell.

ART. VII. *A Journal of Travels in Barbary, in the Year* 1801. By James Curtis, Esq. Surgeon to the Embassy to Morocco. With Observations on the Gum Trade of Senegal. 12mo. pp. 154. 4s. Boards. Longman and Co.

THIS little volume briefly relates the facts which came within the author's observation, during the short time which he passed in Barbary; and we learn from it that in May 1801, he received directions from General O'Hara to go to Tangier, in order to accompany His Majesty's Ambassador to the Emperor of Morocco, in the quality of surgeon to the mission. His narrative of the journey from Tangier to Fez, and back, contains various curious particulars, some of which we shall extract as samples of the entertainment which the reader may expect from a perusal of the whole book.

At Tangier, Mr. Curtis relates:

'A dying child was brought to me under the superstitious notion that an English Doctor can cure every disease by feeling the pulse of

of his patient. I desired the person who came with it. to call again in two hours, when I would prepare something that might be beneficial; but on his return, he acquainted me the child was dead and buried. In this country it is the uniform practice to inter a body, without either coffin or covering, the moment it ceases to breathe.'

In the first day's journey from Tangier, the author says:

'It is utterly impossible for me to convey an adequate idea of the delightful tract of country which we traversed during the course of this day: the fields were dressed in their richest garb, and every part evinced a high state of cultivation. About fifteen miles from Tangiers we forded two rivers, inlets from the sea, at Cape Spartell, one of which is of considerable breadth and might be easily rendered navigable, as the tide flows a great way up the country. On the other side of this river lies an immense tract of land entirely *uncultivated*, extending towards *Ozila* about ten miles, and composed of fine rich black loam.'

Mr. C. passed through many tracts of uncultivated land in this journey; a deficiency which he attributes in a great measure to the destruction of the human species made in that country by the plague. As the travellers approached the city of Fez, the country appeared to be populous, and the fields were full of corn. 'The mode in which the Arabs cultivate their fields is extremely simple, and attended with little labour. They make use of a small harrow and a pair of oxen for turning up the soil, which they instantly sow, and with another harrow of a finer construction they level the mould, and leave the rest to the operations of Nature.'

'The streets of the city of Fez are uncomfortably narrow, almost every one of them is arched over, and a foot deep in dust during summer, and in dirt during the winter season. From this description, one cannot wonder at the effects of contagious distempers in so large a city as either Fez, Mecquenies, or Morocco, in which the inhabitants are thus closely confined, and compelled to breathe infected air. If a person were to propose any salutary methods of checking them, he would be considered as a madman, and as long as the putrid effluvia is confined, it would be folly to administer medicines, besides that it is certain they would not take any. Their ordinary language is, "If we are to have a plague, nothing can prevent it, and we must die."

'Every city and town of the empire of Morocco, and even every street of Fez has a gate, which is regularly shut at sun-set; and as they are likewise surrounded with walls, no person can be admitted after that hour.'—

'The city of Morocco is totally deserted; the plague carried off three hundred thousand of its inhabitants; above three thousand five hundred persons died daily during the space of twenty-seven days. Those who could afford to give from ten to twenty ducats, buried their parents and relatives; but at Fez they were thrown over the neighbouring

neighbouring mountains, to the number of three or four thousand at a time, and the bodies were covered with the sands which abound on them. The city of Fez lost one hundred and seventy thousand persons, principally young men, women, and children; but the more aged men and women escaped.'

Fez is said to contain at present 800,000 persons.

Muley Solyman, the present Emperor of Morocco, enjoys the entire sovereignty of Morocco, Fez, and Mecquenies; which were formerly divided into three distinct kingdoms.

'He is unceasingly engaged in war with his rebellious subjects, who refuse to pay the usual tributes and duties. Before our arrival at Fez, the Emperor had levied a tax for the purpose of carrying on the war, which excited great murmurs among the people. Upon my enquiring of a person, who was complaining every hour that he was ruined, the amount of his contribution, he replied, that he paid twelve blanquins! (about three pence sterling.) What admirable subjects the Moors would make, if they were transplanted into the polished communities of Europe!'—

'The Emperor is reported to be one of the best scholars in the empire, and he aspires to be an High Priest; he is at prayers twelve times in a day. His dress is the same as the rest of the Moors, only his clothes are finer; he is about five feet ten inches in stature, stout, but well made, with a handsome countenance. By the laws of his country, he is obliged to marry four wives from the royal family, after which, he may retain as many concubines as he thinks proper. The haram of the present Emperor is composed of about sixty women.'

The amusement which we found in reading these travels has led us to give a larger proportion of extract, than we had intended in the account of so short a performance.—After the narrative of the journey and return, we are presented with the author's *Observations on the Gum Trade of Senegal*; containing a description of the trees which produce the gums, and a short history of the trade.

Capt. B....y.

ART. VIII. *Britannicus*, a Tragedy, in Five Acts; translated from the French of Racine, with a critical Preface. By Sir Brooke Boothby, Bart. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Stockdale.

GOOD taste is always pleased with elegant simplicity: but this quality alone is not sufficient to delight the multitude. Crowded audiences are not to be obtained without intricacy of plot, bustle, spectacle, and pantomime: nor are mystery and ceremonies more necessary to a popular religion, than show and stage effect to popular entertainments. Men of sense, when they design to captivate the vulgar, have recourse to these well-known expedients: but, when their only purpose is to

prepare a mental feast for the discerning few, they lay aside what, in the language of the Green-room, is called "the strut, whisker, and gold fringe." Addison in his Cato, Mason in his Caractacus, and Racine in his Britannicus, were solicitous to produce dramas which might be perused with delight; and which should not entirely depend for their effect on good acting, like the flimsy productions of the modern stage.

Racine speaks of the tragedy before us as that which, of all his pieces, he has laboured with the greatest care; and the professed endeavour of his translator has been to preserve the chaste simplicity of the original. In the execution of this task, Sir B. Boothby had no view to the reception of the piece on the English stage. It is indeed a dramatic dialogue, formed on the models of antiquity, and presenting a picture of the courts of Augustus and Nero, faithfully delineated according to the testimony of Tacitus. Nero is here depicted in the first year of his reign, in which his horrid vices only began to shew themselves, and were not yet displayed in their full atrocity. The tragedy can scarcely, according to the modern acceptation of the term, be said to have a plot: it is a simple action, advancing by degrees to its end, and sustained only by the interests, the sentiments, and the passions of the *dramatis personæ.* To the few who can be satisfied with so inartificial and unembarrassed a performance, the labours of the respectable translator will be acceptable; though they may lament that the version was not sufficiently polished to exclude some aukward lines; as, *e. g.*

'And in one night 'tis you become her lover.'

Few changes are made: but, had Sir Brooke been disposed to deviate from the models and precepts of the antients, he might easily, as he has shewn in his preface, have so altered the play of Racine, by the introduction of a portion of bustle and show (especially in the fifth act,) as to have fitted it for modern representation. We transcribe a part of this drama, that the reader may judge of the manner of its execution:

'ACT V. SCENE IV.

AGRIPPINA, JUNIA, BURRHUS.

Agrippina. Stop, Burrhus. Whither in such trembling haste?
Burrhus. Madam, 'tis done. Britannicus expires.
Junia. Immortal gods!
Agrippina. Britannicus expires!
Burrhus. Or, is already dead.
Junia. Pardon me, Madam:
I fly to aid, or to partake his fate!

SCENE

SCENE V.

AGRIPPINA. BURRHUS.

Agrippina. Gods! what deed is this!
Burrhus. Most horrible!
My task is done: I cannot here remain.
Agrippina. And did he lift his hand against his brother?
Burrhus. No: with more mystery the scene was acted.
Soon as the Emperor perceiv'd his brother,
He rose to meet him, and with open arms
Press'd to his bosom in a strait embrace;
Then taking in his hand a bowl, he says,
"To crown this day with happy auspices,
I make libation of this sacred wine."
The pious act Britannicus repeated;
The cup was then replenish'd by Narcissus,
Who gave it to Britannicus to drink;
But scarcely had the liquor touch'd his lips,
When, pale and lifeless, on his couch he sunk!
Judge with what terrors all the rest were seiz'd:
Part, uttering cries of horror, fled the place;
While some, more us'd to the disguise of courts,
Fashion'd their eyes to Nero's. He unmov'd,
Look'd on: and "This," he calmly said, "is nothing;
He from his infancy is often thus."
In vain Narcissus with a shew of pity
Veil'd the perfidious joy he could not hide;
I pierc'd the throng, regardless what they thought:
Let them mark me for their next violence.
Agrippina. Gods, he is here!

SCENE VI.

AGRIPPINA, NERO, JUNIA, BURRHUS, NARCISSUS.

Nero (*to Junia.*) Yes, I respect your tears,
But yet avoid this horrid spectacle!
Myself have turn'd away my weeping eyes.
Britannicus is dead: thus Heaven disposes
Of our best purposes; and when we thought
Our friendship to renew, divides for ever.
Junia. My Lord, I lov'd Britannicus; you know it;
And if one spark of pity touch your breast
For miseries like mine, you'll not refuse
That in Octavia's bosom I may seek
The little consolation that remains.
Nero. Yes, Junia, go. I there will follow you.

SCENE VII.

AGRIPPINA, NERO, BURRHUS, NARCISSUS.

Agrippina. Nero, a word or two before we part;
Britannicus is dead! I know the assassin.

Nero. And who suspect you of so black a crime?
Agrippina You.
Nero. Me! Were, Madam, your suspicions heeded,
I should be capable of every crime.
You lov'd the Prince: his death confounds your projects.
I cannot answer for the will of fate.
Agrippina. No, no; Britannicus has died by poison!
Narcissus mix'd the draught, by your command.
Nero. Who, Madam, can have dar'd to hold this language?
Narcissus. Is then, my Lord, this language so injurious?
Madam, the Prince had entertain'd designs
That might have cost you far more just regret.
To Junia's hand his hopes were not confin'd;
With your own gifts he would have punish'd you:
You were deceiv'd in him: his haughty spirit
Pretended, soon or late, to claim his place.
Be it, that fate against your will has serv'd you;
Or, of the plots inform'd that touch'd his life,
Cæsar has trusted my fidelity,
Leave, Madam, to your enemies these tears;
Let them lament Britannicus: but you——
Agrippina. Nero, proceed; with ministers like this
New glories cannot fail to mark thy course!
This act is but a prelude to the rest.
A brother's blood already on thy hand,
I see it rais'd against thy mother's life!
I know my benefits hang heavy on thee;
From all restraint my death must set thee free,
But think not it shall save thee from my vengeance:
Rome, yonder heaven, the air thou breath'st, my gift,
Shall hourly call me to thy view appall'd:
The furies of remorse shall lash thy soul,
And drive thee headlong on from crime to crime,
Till wearied Heaven, that can no more endure,
Turn thy despairing hand against thyself;
And thy last crime become an act of justice:
Thy name accurs'd to latest times shall go,
The worst of insults to the worst of tyrants.
This my prophetic soul foretels. I have done;
Thou mayst depart.
Nero. Narcissus, follow me.'

The critical preface contains not only some judicious remarks on the distinguishing features of the several species of dramatic compositions, but also some hints for the consideration of the landscape gardener.

Mo-y.

ART. IX. *An Inquiry into the Nature and Origin of Public Wealth*, and into the Means and Causes of its Increase. By the Earl of Lauderdale. 8vo. pp. 488. 8s. 6d. Boards. Edinburgh, Constable and Co.; London, Longman and Co. 1804.

ONE of the boasts of the present age may be that it has drawn Philosophy from her Academic retreats, to mingle in the business and concerns of active life; and learned trifling now slumbers in obscurity, or has gradually given place to discussions which are more rational, perhaps more elegant, certainly more beneficial. The invention of bills of exchange, the establishment of banks, the introduction of paper as a circulating medium, the vast increase of manufactures, and the wide extension of commerce, have fashioned the artificial structure of society in modern Europe, and furnished ample scope for inquiry and reflection. The subdivision of employments, and the various distribution of wealth, thus become proper subjects for calculation; and Political Arithmetic, which originated in England about the middle of the seventeenth century, is now, under the more improved shape of Statistics, eagerly cultivated by the patient industry of the Germans: but Political Economy, which naturally springs out of the former, and constitutes a most interesting and important science, has arisen almost within our own times. France led the way; and the famous sect of Economists, though sometimes betrayed by the love of system, displayed, on the whole, a precision, a boldness, and a depth of investigation that were never surpassed. Scotland next succeeded: but the writings of Hume and Stewart have been finally eclipsed by the luminous and comprehensive work of Adam Smith; and the *Inquiry into the Wealth of Nations*, with all its imperfections, must long be esteemed a standard production.

It affords us sincere pleasure to see a nobleman, who appears destined by his rank, his fortune, and his talents, to fill some important charge in the councils of the nation, pursuing the same arduous career which was opened by his scientific countrymen, and vigorously directing his studies to such useful and interesting objects. The performance now under review does credit to his acuteness and ingenuity. It gives proofs of curious and extensive reading, and evinces close observation combined with legitimate trains of argument. The style is simple, unaffected, and remarkably perspicuous; and the illustrations introduced are frequent, though they seem to want variety. With respect to the results, we are not so much disposed to value them for their intrinsic merit, as for their evident tendency to correct and improve the principles now currently received.

Lord

Lord Lauderdale most satisfactorily points out several incongruities in the propositions of Dr. Smith; whose loose didactic manner, and fondness of presenting his thoughts under different aspects, had particularly exposed him to attacks: but, though the noble author appears rather anxious to give his own deductions an air of novelty or singularity, we think that in some cases they differ more in words than in idea from the received opinions; and that in others the paradoxical conclusions, though perhaps strictly drawn, proceed merely from the vagueness and inaccuracy of the principles usually admitted. Yet the service thus rendered to Political Economy, may not be the less real, since we are taught to re-examine and settle the bases on which that science is built.

In the concluding paragraphs of the work, Lord Lauderdale recapitulates the leading principles which, in the progress of inquiry, he had endeavoured to establish; and this passage will give the reader some notion of the course of reasoning which he is to expect in a perusal of the volume:

'If, in delineating the means and the causes of the progressive increase of wealth, we have been fortunate enough to impress conviction, it will follow:—

'That man owes his wealth, or the accumulation of the objects of his desire, which he alone of all animals possesses, to the power of directing his labour to *the* increasing *of* the quantity, or *the* meliorating *of* the quality, of the productions of nature; and to the power of supplanting and performing labour by capital;—faculties peculiar to, and characteristic of, the human species:—

'That though land, labour, and capital, may be regarded as the sources of wealth, the wealth of mankind is alone increased by labour, whether performed by the hand of man or by capital, employed in increasing the quantity, and meliorating the quality, of the productions of nature; and by labour, whether manual or performed by capital, employed in giving form to, and adapting raw materials for consumption:—

'That the direction which labour in every country takes, and of course the channels of industry in which it excels,—nay, the extent to which the exertions of its industry, and even its population, can be pushed, depend upon the distribution of its wealth:—

'That when once the peculiar character of the industry of a country is, by this means, fixed and decided, the progress of its opulence is accelerated or retarded in proportion as the distribution of wealth in other countries creates a demand for the articles, in the production of which it excels:—And, lastly;—

'That all impediments thrown in the way of commercial communication, obstruct the increase of wealth, as much by discouraging the industry of the country which gives rise to them, as by their effects on the industry of the country they are meant to injure.'

It is requisite, however, to discuss the facts and reasonings which are adduced in support of these propositions. Chap. 1. treats of *Value*, and contains the chief arguments on which the rest of the work depends. Nothing, it is contended, has any real or intrinsic *value*, which is merely relative, and is created by *demand* and *scarcity*. Thus, water, the most essential article of life, because it exists in abundance, seldom bears any price; and gold, though usually deemed a precious metal, was treated by the natives of America almost with indifference, till the eager demand of the Spaniards gave it value. So little has the quality of an article any effect in deciding its value, that it often is estimated lowest when the former occurs in the highest degree. Grain is always the finest in a plentiful season, and yet it then obtains the smallest price. Value, being therefore only artificial and extrinsic, is not susceptible of any standard of comparison. Various writers, and particularly Dr. Smith, have considered *labour* as the proper measure of value: but this idea Lord L. endeavours to combat. He maintains that labour varies in its value as much as any other object of demand; since its price fluctuates at different periods and in different countries; and it is subject to all the variations which arise from the change of mutual relation between demand and scarcity. Indeed the distinction made by Dr. Smith between *productive* and *unproductive* labour seems, at first sight, utterly inconsistent with the idea of its being an accurate measure of value.

We readily admit this reasoning to be very specious, but we must dispute the solidity of the basis on which it rests. Value is not *determined* by demand and scarcity; it is only *affected* or *modified* by those circumstances. The increase of demand or of scarcity has certainly an effect in raising the value of any thing, as the decrease of either has a similar influence in depressing it: but such fluctuations can occasion merely a temporary derangement; and, notwithstanding the action of these disturbing forces, the value continually tends to its natural equilibrium. The demand and scarcity seek always a mutual balance; and whatever is formed, or procured, by human industry, would soon appear in that precise degree of plenty which is proportioned to the demand. The natural and steady value of any article is, therefore, just what would repay the labour employed in producing it. Ordinary work, however, being performed by the lowest class of society, is rewarded nearly alike in all ages and countries: it must afford enough to feed, to clothe, and to lodge the labourer and his family; and very seldom does it go farther. Perhaps the real condition of the peasantry is not much different all over Europe; and if they possess more comforts in England, they also toil much harder

harder than in many parts of the Continent. The rise of wages is almost invariably accompanied with increased exertion; and if labour at a former period bore a smaller price, and probably could purchase fewer of the necessaries of life, assuredly it was less strenuous and animated. In America, wages are kept above the level by the prevailing taste of the people, which disinclines them from being employed, and tempts them to become petty cultivators. Besides, they are not obliged, in any considerable degree, to share the fruits of their labour with the proprietor, the capitalist, or the state annuitant; in other words, they pay very little in the shape of rent, or interest, or taxes.—Hence we conclude that labour, though not an accurate measure of value, is yet the nearest approximation that the varying position of society will admit; and we maintain that every article in request has a certain absolute or medium value, from which it may oscillate on either side according to the degree of plenty or the fluctuation of demand, but to which it naturally endeavours to return.

The second chapter considers *the relation which subsists between public wealth and individual riches*; and here, in opposition to the universal sentiment of mankind, the noble author insists that the mass of private wealth does not constitute national opulence. He argues that the general scarcity of any article enhances the value of what is possessed by an individual: that, while war diminishes the price of stock, and even that of land, the stockholder continues to receive the same dividend, and the landlord the same rent: that in seasons of scarcity, the price of corn always rises in a higher ratio than the scantiness of the crop; and that therefore individuals are enriched, while the community is rendered poor. These positions are illustrated in detail, by tracing the obvious effects of the alteration of quantity, or demand, on the value of some staple articles; such as sugar, meat, and wine:

'It is further necessary to remark, that when variations in value, or in the mass of individual riches, are created by alterations in the quantity of any commodity, the opposite effect in all cases immediately takes place in public wealth. A diminution of the value of a commodity, in consequence of an alteration of its quantity, is an invariable symptom of an immediate increase of its quantity; and of course of an increase of public wealth: an augmentation of the value of a commodity, in consequence of an alteration of its quantity, is an invariable symptom of an immediate diminution of its quantity, and consequently of a diminution of public wealth.

'But if there is a diminution in the value of a commodity, in consequence of a variation in the demand for it, this is no symptom of an immediate alteration in the quantity of the commodity; but it is a sure presage of future diminution of its quantity, and of

course a diminution of public wealth; and if there is an augmentation in the value of a commodi y, in consequence of an alteration in the demand for it, this in like manner is no symptom of an alteration in the quantity of a commodity; though it is always foll wed by a reduction of its quantity, and of course by a reduction of public wealth.'

This mode of arguing is evidently fallacious; since the public wealth arises not from *certain individuals*, but from *the whole collective body*. The scarcity of any commodity may indeed enrich a particular class of men; yet the rest of the community, who are the purchasers, must proportionally suffer; and therefore the aggregate mass of riches will be thus diminished. An increased demand for sugar would only transfer to the West India planter, and merchant, a greater portion of the wealth that was before diffused through the nation: what is added in one part of the general account is only subtracted from other parts; and the balance would therefore continue the same. According to the computation of Gregory King, a deficiency of one-fifth of the crop will make the price of corn to rise four-fifths. The farmer consequently receives 44 *per cent.* more than in ordinary years, while the great body of the consumers are obliged to pay 80 *per cent.* more than the medium price; and hence the mass of public wealth suffers a diminution equal to 36 *per cent.* or the value of the deficient fifth part of the crop estimated at the enhanced rate.—The effect of war in lowering the public funds, and even the price of land, seems owing to the joint operation of two causes: 1. by creating apprehension and danger, it diminishes the security and consequently the value of all property; and 2. by occasioning continual calls for money in the form of loans, it alters the relation between capital and income, between the importance of present enjoyment and the prospect of future possession. If we except the multiplied burthens which it inevitably brings on the people at large, the only tendency of war is to disturb the natural equilibrium of wealth. It is as favourable to him who can advance money to the state, as it is disadvantageous to him who is obliged to consume the whole of his annual gains. To say that a nation is rich because it supports many over-grown fortunes, however customary it may be, is yet a manifest abuse of language. Countries in which greater equality prevails will indeed appear less brilliant, but may contain a larger sum of wealth.

Chapter III. examines *the sources of wealth.*—Whence does wealth arise? This question still remains to be solved. Land, labour, and capital, either separately or combined, have had their several advocates. Dr. Smith seems to assert that land

and

and labour are jointly the source of wealth: but this axiom is not distinctly and satisfactorily proved; and Lord Lauderdale shews, by some apt quotations, that the views of that celebrated author were, on this head, wavering and inconsistent. His lordship reckons all these three elements,—land, labour, and capital,—as concurring in the formation of wealth, and he proceeds to trace the distinct effects of each.

1. *Land.* The Economists held that the rent of land, after having deducted the seed which must be returned to the ground, formed the only real surplus which goes to constitute the national wealth: but Lord Lauderdale contends that the whole territorial produce, and not merely the net rent, is an addition to the riches of the state. This opinion we allow to be in the main true; and we are inclined to proceed a step farther, and to consider rent as only a reasonable and acknowleged transfer to the proprietor, and which contributes not in any degree to augment the public wealth. It is indeed a tax on industry, but a tax to which men will chearfully submit, from habit and the sense of justice. Land has no original value, but acquires value gradually, in consequence of successive improvements and growing competition. In the wilds of America, land costs a mere trifle, a small bounty paid to the state for the purchase of security: but, as population increases, the demand and monopoly must have a necessary effect in raising the price, or the rent.

2. *Labour.* The Economists reckoned every species of labour, except that of the husbandman, as absolutely unproductive.—The arguments with which Dr. Smith has endeavoured to confute this singular opinion are clearly shewn by Lord L. to be inconclusive, if they have not indeed an opposite tendency. He represents the distinction of the same author into *productive* and *unproductive* labour as entirely groundless, and combats it with some keenness and ingenuity. Dr. Smith's definition is certainly loose and incorrect; yet we think that it has some foundation in nature. Between articles of utility and those of mere luxury, a material difference subsists, though it would be difficult to draw the precise line of separation; and certain kinds of industry are confessedly more profitable or more important to the state than others.—Of the arguments brought against the doctrine of the Economists, a tolerable idea will be formed from the subsequent passage:

'It must also be remarked that, even if the nature of things were so far altered that the works of the manufacturer and artist should become so abundant in proportion to the demand for them as universally to reduce the wages of manufacturers and artists to what in value was merely equivalent to their sustenance, (if wealth truly

consists in the abundance of the objects of man's desire), we should be obliged, as long as the love of conveniency and taste is incident to mankind, to consider the manufacturer and artist as productive labourers, on the same principle that we have regarded water as an article of public wealth.

'In truth, it is only from the circumstance of confounding wealth and riches, and considering wealth, in the course of their reasoning, at one time as depending on exchangeable value, and at another as constituted by the abundance of the objects of man's desire, that this doctrine of the œconomists can for a moment be maintained. For supposing that an artist or manufacturer added only the value of his maintenance to the raw material, if wealth is to be understood in its true sense, his labour, even in this case, must be considered as productive of wealth. The nourishment on which he subsists is wealth, because it is an object of man's desire. In satisfying the desire of the labourer, it has fulfilled the duty it is destined to perform; whilst, on the other hand, by the form given to the raw material by his industry, a distinct portion of wealth remains ready, to satisfy the desire of some other individual: so that, admitting that at no one period there existed, in consequence of his industry, an additional value, still it is evident that, in consequence of the industry of the manufacturer, there is a portion of desire satisfied, and of course a portion of wealth created, which would not otherwise have existed.'

A moment's reflection, however, will convince us that the labour of the artist differs from that of the cultivator in degree only, and not in kind. Both of these sorts of industry pay to the landlord a certain tax, or, in the language of the Economists, they yield a net surplus. The sole difference is, that the annual sum, levied from the manufacturer in the shape of rent, bears such a very small proportion to his whole produce as to be commonly overlooked: but, if a manufacture requires great extent of ground, an advantageous situation, a fall of water, &c. the rent charged may then enter into the estimate, and sensibly affect the price of the goods. On the other hand, in the more refined species of agriculture, rent becomes relatively of small consequence. Thus, in the instance quoted by Lord Lauderdale, of land dressed under the gardening system in the neighbourhood of London, yielding at least 220l. *per* acre the produce exceeded perhaps twenty times the rent; while, from the same land employed to raise corn, one third part of the whole crop would have been scarcely sufficient to satisfy the claims of the proprietor. The exportation of manufactured articles, unless great capital is engaged in their fabrication, therefore contributes less to the public wealth than the exportation of corn; because the former barely repays the wages of the artisan and the advances of his employer; while the latter not only repays the farmer and his servants, but moreover fur-

nishes a revenue to support the country gentlemen, the clergy, and their numerous dependants.

3. The last source of wealth, as enumerated by Lord Lauderdale, is *Capital.*—Dr. Smith appears to consider the profit of stock as paid out of the value which the workman adds to the raw material: but his lordship contends that it is an original, and not a derivative, source of income. He successively considers capital as employed in these five ways,—in machinery,—in trade,—in commerce,—in agriculture,—and in circulation. His great proposition is, that the profits of capital are derived from *its supplanting or performing labour*; and he argues that the stock invested in a spade or a plough supersedes the quantity of labour which would have been rendered necessary without the help of those instruments: that, as one person may perhaps work as many stockings on a loom as a dozen could knit in the same time, the loom then performs the labour of eleven people; and that, though in consequence of competition that profit is soon reduced, the labour, thus displaced, still forms the fund from which it is derived.—We cannot, however, accede to this mode of reasoning, since Lord L. seems here to confound skill with capital. It is true that the inventor of a machine draws at first a reward from the source above mentioned, or from the measure of improvement: but, as the monopoly ceases, skill entirely loses its value; and, however important the contrivance in itself may be, it soon yields no more profit than that which, in other cases, capital will command. In strict logic, *a machine* cannot supplant or perform labour. The language of Dr. Smith seems more natural, and in this instance, we think, it is more correct. To displace a portion of labour is only to render that which is then employed more productive.

In treating of the profits of capital vested in trade, Lord L. endeavours to push the same argument. It spares, he says, the labour which the consumer would have necessarily undergone in hunting after the articles wanted. Surely this is a very limited view of the matter. The far greater part of the capital is employed in purchasing and storing up the articles, to wait the effective demand. With respect to the profits of foreign commerce, the same objection is valid; and the shipping which it employs comes directly under the case of machinery. Those of agriculture are likewise resolvable into similar elements. Lord L. maintains, however, that capital, vested even in circulation, derives a profit from supplanting labour. Money no doubt facilitates exchange, but paper, which costs nothing, will perform the same office; and it appears more reasonable to consider coin as a mass of unproductive capital,

capital, of which the state foregoes the profits, for the sake of giving more stability to commerce.

How, then, does the profit of capital generally arise? It is, like the rent of land, merely a transfer from one class of the society to another: it is the tax which frugality and foresight impose on profusion and improvidence. The rate of interest must also vary according to the state of the market, or the relation between the demand and the plenty of stock: but when the situation of affairs is tranquil and uniform, the premium paid to the lender on good security appears every where tending towards a certain natural level. This rate perhaps depends on the mean duration of human life, or on the value, in every one's estimate, of personal enjoyments in comparison of those which only await posterity. High interest of money marks the degree of importance attached to present gratifications; and, on the supposition that life were extended to the patriarchal age, it might be presumed that the rate of interest would sink in all countries.

Labour, then, we regard as the true basis and only original source of wealth. Yet land and capital have indirectly a beneficial influence, since they furnish materials for the exercise of industry, and are the means of exciting more strenuous exertions. The rent paid by the farmer will occasion larger crops to be raised; and capital may be viewed as quantity of power or obligation stored up, which, being thrown into action, gives to labour a stimulus and an useful direction.

In chapter IV. Lord Lauderdale considers *the possibility of increasing wealth by any other means than those by which it is produced.* This title has obviously the appearance of a negative truism: but the noble author here pursues his favourite proposition, that the mass of individual riches does not compose the public wealth; and he treats with severity 'the baneful passion for accumulation, that has been falsely denominated a virtue.' He does not, however, go so far as wholly to deny the use of capital, but he dwells on the possibility of its exceeding due bounds. In that case, he contends, the public must suffer: 1. 'By the creation of a quantity of capital more than is requisite; and, 2. By abstracting a portion of encouragement to future reproduction.' Yet if capital, according to his hypothesis, performs or supplants labour, we should infer that it must always be advantageous to the state, since it would tend to increase the general produce, and diminish the toil exacted from the individuals. The capitalist, however, whom Lord L. pictures in his imagination, is only a sordid miser, occupied in hoarding up treasure in a dormant and useless shape. Stock is no doubt gradually formed by the ac-

cumulation of the annual surplus of the produce above the consumption or the expenditure: yet it is not idle, nor inefficient; and the holder, in consulting his private advantage, proves a benefactor to the state, since he relieves the distress incurred by heedless prodigality, sets in motion the creative powers, and rouses the latent energies of the community. The formation of capital may rather discourage unproductive labour, but it animates the industry of the productive class; and we cannot discern any limit to its useful operation. It would cease to accumulate if it did not yield a profit, or was not advantageously employed. Its abundance would encourage every beneficial undertaking at home; and, after the rate of interest became too much depressed, it would find its way abroad, and, laying foreign countries under contribution, it would silently bring a revenue to the state. Such has long been the situation of Holland.

Following up his principles, Lord Lauderdale gives a history of the Sinking Fund; and he displays, with considerable ingenuity, the inconvenience which would result to the public from carrying into effect the plan for extinguishing the national debt. The annual operation of this fund amounted in 1799 to *five* millions; and Mr. Pitt proposed that the produce of the Income Tax, which he estimated at *ten* millions, should after the war be added to it. The project, however, was altered by his successor; the power of the Sinking Fund is now about *six* millions; and the Income Tax, after a short and inauspicious repeal, has been again revived under a different name, liable to all the former objections, and to many others in addition.—That the reader may better comprehend Lord L.'s objections to the measure of reducing the public debt, we quote his own words:

'If L. 15,000,000 a-year extraordinary were levied by the Government from the revenue of its subjects, to defray the charge of warfare or any other extraordinary expenditure; as this money would be expended in articles of consumption, as fast as assumed, the expence of the Government would effectually counteract the effects of the parsimony it renders necessary, and creates in the subject. The only mischief, therefore, that could ensue, would arise from the extensive demand it must suddenly occasion for one class of commodities, and from the consequent abstraction of so large a portion of the revenue of the subjects from the acquisition of those articles in which it is usually expended; a mischief in itself nowise trifling, as recent experience has taught the merchants of this country.

'Very different, however, must have been the effect of raising fifteen millions for the purpose of accumulation, or of forcibly converting fifteen millions of revenue into capital. In this, as in the former

former case, there would have ensued all the mischief occasioned by abstracting a portion of demand represented by fifteen millions a-year, from the commodities which the subjects were accustomed to acquire with this part of their revenue: but, in this case, there would unfortunately have existed no extraordinary expenditure, to counteract the full effects of this forced parsimony; for it would have been difficult to persuade the proprietors of stock, from whom such extensive purchases would have been made by the Commissioners of the Sinking Fund, all at once to spend, as revenue, that which habit had taught them to regard as capital; or, in other words, all at once to ruin themselves, in order to counteract the bad effects of this miserly policy in Government.

'Unless, however, the stockholder could have been persuaded thus to expend his capital, fifteen millions a-year less must have been expended in the different articles the country produced or manufactured; that is, a portion of demand would at once have been withdrawn from commodities of British growth or manufacture, nearly equal to the whole demand created by the foreign trade of the country in the year 1786, when the million was first set aside to accumulate, as the exports from England amounted in that year to the sum of L. 15,385,987.'

This strain of arguing, we confess, seems more popular than might have been expected from such an able politician. The expence of war surely causes incalculably greater mischief than the mere derangement of the equilibrium of employment. It is not enough if the money levied during hostilities were only spent within the country, since it is spent in promoting that unprofitable species of industry which leaves not a monument behind it, and is extorted from beneficial labour to support what is employed in consuming the bounties of nature, and carrying forwards the business of destruction. We cannot perceive how the discharge of the public creditor should, at least for some time, alter his mode of living, or disturb the balance of internal demand and consumption. He would seek to turn his capital into another channel; in pursuing his private emolument, he would encourage all useful undertakings, and perhaps would unconsciously put in motion the various sorts of productive industry. As stock accumulated, his profits would in course diminish: but then the community would be an evident gainer. He might at last be tempted, by the higher rate of interest, to send part of his wealth abroad; and thus he would procure to the state all the advantages of a foreign conquest, without the expence of atchieving and maintaining it. The creation of public debt has multiplied the idle members of society; and the extinction of it would therefore have an opposite effect, and eventually give to the industrious classes a larger share of the fruits of their labour. All political changes, however, ought to be effected gradually. Perhaps the repay-

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ment of 15 millions *per ann.* might subject the holders of stock to serious hardships; though we have unfortunately witnessed, for a considerable period, as large a sum borrowed annually, without occasioning much inconvenience. In 1733, Sir Robert Walpole reckoned one million annually to be as much as the creditors of the public could bear to receive: but this was after a peace of twenty years; and it is not perhaps exaggeration to say that ten millions would be more easily absorbed at present. After all, it is not probable that the wants of Government will ever allow the operation of the Sinking Fund to mount so high; and, as long as the recurrence of wars shall be thus frequent, the creditors of the public, if they but continue to receive the annual dividends, may dismiss all apprehensions of having their capital tendered back. The Sinking Fund might certainly prove advantageous as a political measure: but, in the hands of lavish and impetuous ministers, it becomes a most dangerous engine. It casts a deceptive glare around it, and has a tendency to facilitate the pernicious practice of borrowing, by which it tempts the nation to waste her energies in wild and fruitless projects of interminable warfare.

'Nothing, indeed, can be more absurd, than the golden dreams with which Parliament and the nation have been amused, through the medium of the calculations that have been formed on this subject. Perhaps it may with reason be thought, that nothing could be more unfortunate than the faith that seems to be reposed in them.

'For though the Sinking Fund, the offspring of this delusion, never can, without ruining the country, be accumulated to an amount equal to the debt of the nation, yet its existence has greatly facilitated the contracting of debt; that is, it has enabled those who had the management of the Government more completely to derange the natural and most advantageous distribution of the property of the country; —that distribution, which, giving to the possessor the greatest real interest in the property he has to manage, affords the greatest encouragement to those exertions of industry in the conduct of it, which alike benefit the proprietor and the public.'

If ever peace shall revisit these lands, and the Sinking Fund should not be swallowed up in the pressing exigencies of the state, perhaps it would be a preferable mode, instead of employing it then in buying up stock, to lend it out as much as possible on mortgage and good securities; since it would in this way be more productive, and consequently operate with greater effect. A more essential benefit, however, would thence accrue to the public, as it might serve to check the passion of plunging headlong into war, by setting the country gentlemen to oppose the clamour of the money-holders, who have a manifest interest to promote every scheme that will create

create a demand for capital: because the former, who would constitute the principal borrowers, must foresee the probability of being speedily called to repay the loan, that it might be more advantageously invested in stock.

Every one who turns his thoughts to matters of finance is astonished to see, during war, with what ease a minister of this country can from year to year borrow those vast sums which have lately been obtained, while no such overflowing accumulation of capital is perceived in times of peace. It is true that new channels are then opened for productive industry: but this reason appears insufficient to account for the fact, and perhaps the real cause lies deeper. In time of war, the progressive imposition of taxes incessantly reminds the consumer to husband his resources, and the high rate of interest tempts him to save annually a portion of his income for the purpose of converting it into capital. Thus, by a most beautiful moral balance, the frugality of the individual not only tends to repair the waste of the public wealth, but is actually, in a great measure, excited and produced by that very profusion. Modern war, therefore, however pernicious in its effects, is not quite so destructive as some desponding politicians would represent.

The last chapter treats *of the means of augmenting wealth, and the causes that regulate its increase;* and here we are in general disposed to approve the opinions and remarks of the noble author. He states that wealth, except what is derived from the ocean, can only be increased by labour, 'whether personal or performed by capital'—in short, by *agriculture* and *manufactures*. He cites a remarkable passage from Xenophon's *Cyropædia*, to shew that the antients were acquainted with the advantages resulting from the subdivision of labour; and he proves that Dr. Smith, who laid so much stress on it, has greatly over-rated the importance of such arrangements. In almost every manufacture, the subdivision of labour seems to be of far less consequence than the introduction of machinery,—the offspring of skill and contrivance. Some of the most essential arts of life will scarcely admit of subdivision: but the application of tools and instruments always prodigiously facilitates and augments the powers of labour.—The state of society, or the nature and degree of demand, must determine the sorts of industry which are exercised in every country; and no legislative interference can either profitably or effectually divert them from their proper channels. In spite of all the bounties paid for the curing of herrings in this kingdom, they must ever be inferior to those prepared by the Dutch; since, instead of adding to the luxuries of a German table, they are sent to feed our negroes in the West Indies.

dies. America affords a vent for the coarser kinds of manufactures: but to India we can export only a few articles of jewellery, and pieces of curious mechanism intended for the native princes; the great mass of the people being too wretched to desire the acquisition of European commodities. In England, we find ease and comfort tolerably diffused, frequently the appearance of expence, and seldom much of elegance; in France, on the contrary, we look in vain for general neatness, but we are occassionally struck with the display of taste, magnificence, and splendour.—Though commerce, being the mere exchange of articles, does not positively add to the wealth of the state, it has yet a beneficial tendency; since it gives a spur to activity, and serves to procure the several advantages which belong to different soils, climates, and conditions of society. All restrictions on trade must be regarded as highly injudicious and impolitic; and it is indeed very remarkable that philosophical writers, with scarcely a single exception, and by whatever road they proceeded, have uniformly arrived at the same conclusion. This liberal maxim should be continually sounded in the ears of those who direct the affairs of nations; and it is much to be lamented that governments have been so long deceived by ignorance, and misled by prejudice or by partial and interested representations.

The Appendix, which occupies 114 pages, contains a number of curious and interesting documents. They consist mostly of extracts from the writings of the Economists—the testament of Fortuné Ricard—calculations on the Sinking Fund—observations on the commercial treaty with France—remarks on French agriculture—difference between the quantity of food produced under the grazing system and that of tillage—and lastly, an estimate of the superior husbandry practised in the rich tract of the Carse of Gowrie in Scotland.

The volume is rather incorrectly printed, especially where figures are concerned. In page 51, the table is hardly intelligible, on account of the decimal point being misplaced. We might also remark some inaccurate modes of expression, if, respecting a work of this nature, it would not appear to be hypercriticism.

In concluding, we must remark that Lord Lauderdale has given to his subject a novel cast; that he has discovered no ordinary abilities in the contexture of the discourse; and that, if his arguments do not always produce conviction on the mind, they will seldom fail to surprize and perplex. Amid any seeming obscurity of ideas, the attentive reader will yet discover depth of thought and extent of observation; and the singularity of the opinions sometimes advanced must provoke discussion, and therefore eventually contribute to the advance-

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ment of political science.—The noble author justly observes that the great source of error, in such abstract disquisitions, proceeds from the vague and popular meaning of the words necessarily employed: yet we have seldom found much benefit arise from formal definitions, because the writer is extremely apt to forget the restricted sense with which he had set out, and insensibly to admit, in the course of his reasonings, a much wider latitude, which consequently must involve him in paralogisms. We believe, however, that the main cause of mistake, in questions of political economy, originates in the incautious use of figurative language, which ascribes agency to mere instruments and accessories. The word *capital* has, almost throughout this book, a signification highly metaphorical.

A prefixed Advertisement acquaints us that Lord Lauderdale's original intention was to print, at the same time, a second work on the Legislation of Commerce and Finance: but that, on farther reflection, he resolved to pause, and wait the decision of the public. In taking this step, we think that his lordship has acted wisely; and he will probably in the meantime revise and improve his ideas, that he may come forwards again with greater efficacy.—The present volume is dedicated to the Prince of Wales.

Les..e.

ART. X. *The Swiss Emigrants;* A Tale. 12mo. pp. 126. 4s. Boards. Longman and Rees. 1804.

THE object of this well-told tale is at once to set forth the happiness which may be derived from the practice of beneficence in an humble and obscure sphere, and to exhibit a moving picture of the misery of which war is productive. The author does not favour us with the name of his hero, and therefore in speaking of him we shall denominate him *Ignotus*. We learn that this personage had spent his younger days in the army: that, on quitting the service, he married; and that the lovely partner of his joys lived only long enough to present him with a daughter. About the same time, misfortunes of another kind overtake him, which leave him so much reduced in circumstances, as not to be able to support the rank in which he had before appeared. He therefore quits the gaiety of a town life, and retires to Langen, a romantic village in the mountainous parts of the Canton of Berne; where, living on a competence, he employs himself in ameliorating the condition of its rude inhabitants, and in educating his child. His efforts are long attended with little success, but still he perseveres.

severes. In time, Julia grows up, beautiful and accomplished, and is adored by the villagers. Under her fostering hand, the seeds sown by her father are rapidly matured. None resist the admonitions of Julia; the manners of the rustics are softened, their morals are improved, their comforts are increased, they become superior and happier beings. Meiners, a promising youth, living in a neighbouring town, had long visited in the family of *Ignotus*, who respected and loved him; and he at length declares himself the admirer of Julia. The match is approved on all sides: but at the meeting in which the period for the union of the lovers was fixed, the rumour of an approaching rupture between Helvetia and France is announced, and diffuses a temporary gloom over each countenance; though time, and a willing scepticism, concur to dissipate the alarm. Shortly afterward, Meiners re-appears, and confirms the sad intelligence, adding that hostilities had actually begun. Not a moment was now to be lost. The Langenites obey the call of *Ignotus*; under whose command, accompanied by Meiners, they set out for the field of honor. The tender-hearted Julia bids a heavy farewell to her parent and her lover: but she acts on the trying occasion in a manner worthy of herself, and submits with alacrity to the cruel separation which distracts her soul. The Langenites join the Bernese army just in time to engage in the bloody action that was to decide the fate of their common country; and the ingenuousness and firmness visible in their countenances induce the commander in chief to assign them a post of consequence. In the day of battle, they make a glorious stand against superior numbers and superior discipline united, but are finally mown down by the dreadful flying artillery of the enemy. Few of the brave Langenites survive the fatal day, Meiners is killed, and *Ignotus* is wounded dangerously, but not mortally; while Julia and those who had staid behind at Langen are obliged precipitately to fly, and to seek refuge at Coire. *Ignotus*, being in some degree recovered, is set at liberty, and allowed to proceed to the town which contains his Julia. He hears her welcome voice, and his eyes behold his beloved daughter: but alas! her faded form, and her pale and emaciated countenance, announce that she is in a deep decline. For a few short months, this unfortunate parent enjoys the society of his angelic child; each day of which only gave fresh and more clear notice of the cruel privation which he must speedily undergo. The hours of increasing melancholy soon pass over; the soul of Julia joins that of her lover; and to *Ignotus* are left the mournful reflections which he thus expresses:

'Meiners! Julia!—Of all, for whose sake chiefly I could have wished my life to be prolonged, I am destined to be the melancholy survivor. The grave now covers you from my eyes. But I have learned to penetrate its gloomy silence, and look into the regions that lie beyond; I have learned to anticipate there some future and more blissful re-union with those whom I love.

'I mourn not, O Julia! over thy destiny. Thou art gone from this polluted scene to dwell in purer abodes, from which sorrow and guilt are for ever excluded. I mourn for myself alone; yet wherefore? since, worn out with age and sorrow, I too must quickly fall. I have only to find out some solitary retreat in which to lay down my head, and die in peace.'

Such is war, and such are the blessings which conquerors and warlike statesmen confer on humanity! Yet what a small corner in the wide field of devastation and misery, occasioned by one expedition only, does this volume describe! The most detailed relations of General Brune's progress in Switzerland cannot include the desolation of Langen, nor notice the afflictions under which the aged shoulders of *Ignotus* now bent; and if such as these pages describe be the misery produced in one sequestered village in consequence of a single battle, what imagination can grasp the sum of that which was caused by the revolution, and all its sanguinary contests.

Jo.

ART. XI. *Statistical View of France,* compiled from authentic Documents. By the Chevalier de Tinseau. 8vo. pp. 178. 10s. 6d. Boards. Printed by Spilsbury. 1803.

IN order to ascertain the strength of nations, it is necessary in the first instance to have recourse to the Book of Numbers; though in forming an accurate estimate of their relative power and resources, circumstances must be taken into the account which must either augment or diminish the result of mere numerical calculation. France displays with pride her vast population; and in her continental connections, it affords her a decided preponderance: but her greatness, compared with that of our empire, is not respectively in the exact proportion of inhabitants. Before France can bring her numerous legions to act with effect against the sovereignty of Britain, she must subdue our most formidable Navy; and should she be able to accomplish this her darling project, and to land her troops on our shores, "the unconquerable will, and courage never to submit or yield," of Britons, would oppose a resistance which must falsify arithmetical calculation, and overwhelm the invaders with disgrace. Collected in ourselves, we can contemplate, without the smallest trepidation, the

strength

strength of the enemy given in their statistical accounts. It is, however, prudent in us to make ourselves well acquainted with the ability and resources of the country with which we are now at war; and, as assisting us in this object, the volume of the Chevalier de Tinseau will be consulted with peculiar interest, since it displays the extent of her territory, and the manner in which her vast population is spred over it.

'The Tables, (it is observed,) that will be found in the present work, were drawn up in the tenth year of what is called the French Republic, by command of the Government, and under the direction of the Minister of Justice, Abrial, to whom they were dedicated by Chanlaire and Herbin, who had been appointed to complete and superintend the execution thereof.

'The conclusions drawn from the following Tables may, possibly, appear somewhat exaggerated; but as the materials of these conclusions are given in the greatest detail, and as no recent and positive enumeration can be opposed to them, it would be absurd to attack established facts by bare conjectures. Domiciliary researches, and inquisitions of all kinds, have besides been so multiplied by the Revolution, and so much rigour and even cruelty have been employed in these repeated acts of despotism, that it is not reasonable to suppose, that any portion of what it so highly imported them to know, can have escaped the vigilance of the French Government.

'I have ascertained, myself, the exactness of those Tables, by comparing the population of certain towns therein stated, with that of the same places, which, previous to the Revolution, I had had an opportunity of being well acquainted with; and have found, in general, the present population of those cities is stated to be inferior to what it was at the former period. I shall only quote a few instances. In the year 1783, Mr. Necker * stated the population of the following towns to be; viz.

	Mr. Necker's Account.	The Tables.
Paris	660,000	546,856
Lyons †	160,000	109,500
Lille	67,000	54,756
Sedan	17,500	10,544
Dunkirk	27,000	21,158
Versailles	60,000	25,000
Arras	21,500	19,364
Rennes	35,500	25,904
Orléans	38,500	36,175
Toulon	28,000	20,500

'Here

'* In his work "On the Administration of the Finances of France," published in 1783.'

† Bourdeaux 112,844 (Tables.)
Marseilles 111,130
Rouen 87,000
Nantes 73,649

'Here shall I stop; but the comparison proves that the new Tables were not intended for exaggeration; and it is easy to account for the causes from which proceeds the decrease of the population of some towns, to such a high degree. For instance, the massacres of the wealthy manufacturers and other inhabitants of Lyons, has occasioned the migration of a vast number of journeymen and others. Lille and Sedan were likewise manufacturing towns. The Court resided at Versailles. The massacres and the destruction of the navy, have thinned Toulon of one-fourth of its inhabitants. Rennes was the capital of an extensive province, the residence of a numerous Noblesse, which has been either murdered or dispersed. Orléans contained a vast number of sugar bake-houses, and besides, a capital dépôt of maritime imports, &c. &c.

'If those same Tables state the population of some few towns to be more numerous than formerly, as namely, Bourdeaux and Marseilles, it is to be considered that the enumeration of the inhabitants of those cities has been confounded with the population of their respective Cantons.'

For the purpose also of elucidating the Tables of which this work is composed, the organization of France is thus explained:

'This State is at present divided into one hundred and two *Departments* *, being so many totally distinct Provinces. Each Department is itself subdivided into three, four, or five *Districts* called *Communal Arrondissements*. These Districts are, in their turn, subdivided into *Cantons*. Lastly, each Canton is composed of a certain number of *Communes*; that is to say, of towns and villages. A Commune is sometimes a single town, and sometimes an union of several villages, possessing a Mayor and a Communal Municipality. All the considerable cities are divided into several Communes. The Despot would consider his precarious authority endangered by the reunion of the discontented inhabitants of an entire extensive city. By means of this refinement upon the maxim of tyrants, *divide and govern*, the inhabitants of the same town have ceased to be fellow-citizens.

'Each Department is administered by a Prefect, and as many Sub-Prefects as it contains Districts. The details of the administration descend from the Sub-Prefects to the Mayors, who are appointed by the Despot. Each District has a primary Judicial Tribunal, and each Department a Criminal Tribunal. Every three Departments possess a Tribunal of Appeal, which takes cognizance, by appeal, of all the causes determined by the Tribunals of the Districts under its jurisdiction. Lastly, each Canton has a Justice of the Peace. All the Tribunals of Appeal acknowledge a superior Tribunal, called the *Court of Cassation*, possessing the power of annulling the sentences of the Tribunals of Appeal which appear to it illegal, and of referring

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We add these numbers to enable the reader to compare the amount of the population of the six largest cities in France, with that of the six largest in England, as given p. 311, including the capital of each country.

* 'The six Piedmontese departments are not included in this number.'

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the examination of the cause to any other Tribunal it shall please to appoint. All these Judges are in a state of dependence upon the Government; several have been punished for finding innocent men, who had been accused by the Government; and when the Despot is fearful of an opposition to his vengeance, they are displaced by special commissions.

'The Prefects and the Gendarmerie are the two great springs of the Government. The Prefects are appointed by Buonaparté, and can be removed at his pleasure. They enjoy his confidence, and exercise his authority in the Provinces.' The Gendarmerie is composed of about 20,000 men, horse and foot, in twenty-seven divisions. Each Gendarme is at once a spy, and a sort of ambulating, armed Justice of Peace, possessing the power of arresting whomsoever he pleases, and of paying domiciliary visits all hours of the day or night.'

An account of the new measures adopted by the French is moreover subjoined:

'Hitherto, the measures adopted by the generality of Nations, as well as the subdivisions of those measures, were arbitrarily, or, to speak more correctly, accidentally adopted: such are the English foot, the French toise, &c. The yard is divided into three parts, the toise into six, the Rhinish foot into twelve, &c. Instead of those fundamental measures, arbitrarily taken and divided by every nation, the French have adopted one connected with the dimensions of the globe. This measure, which they call *metre*, or measure *par excellence*, from the Greek term μετρον, is the ten-millionth part of the fourth of the Terrestrial Meridian, which is, every one knows, the distance from the Pole to the Equator. This primitive measure they have successively multiplied or subdivided by ten, in order to form the greater or smaller measures, by analogy to the decimal system of arithmetic, which is the numeration universally adopted in Europe.

'A *Metre*, as we have already seen, is the ten-millionth part of a quarter of the Terrestrial Meridian. One thousand Metres, or a *Kiliometre*, the geographical mensuration adopted by the French, is the ten-thousandth part of the same quarter of the Meridian. In order to find out the proportion between the Kiliometre and the Maritime or Italian Mile (of 60 to a degree, which is the geographical measure in most common use), it is to be observed, that the number of miles which the quarter of the Meridian contains is 60×90, or 5,400. The *Kiliometre* accordingly is to a *Mile* in the ratio of 5,400 to 10,000, or of 27 to 50: and the square Kiliometre to the square mile, as 27×27 to 50×50; otherwise as 729 to 2500; that is to say, very nearly as 7 : 24. Thus it follows, that 24 square Kiliometres = 7 square Miles. Kiliometres accordingly may be reduced into square miles by multiplying the number by 7, and dividing the produce by 24.

'Now, as a quarter of the Meridan contains 2250 leagues, of 25 to a degree; a league is to a kiliometre, as 10,000 to 2250, or 40 to 9, which is the geographical measure in most common use: consequently, a square league is to a square kiliometre, as 40×40 to 9×9, or 1600 to 81; nearly as 79 to 4.'

In addition to the details contained in the several Tables, will be found a list of the 500 principal cities and towns in France, divided into 14 classes, according to the number of their inhabitants, and a general alphabetical Table of the Departments; together with an account of the Population, territorial extent, number of Districts, Cantons, and Communes; of personal, sumptuary, and other Contributions, either on Moveables or Immoveables; on Doors, Windows, and Letters-Patent; of the hundredths additional Duty; and lastly, of the Expence of Administration, Justice, and public Instruction, in each Department, for the 11th year of the new French Æra.

Hence it appears that the territorial extent of France in Kiliometres is 636,343, or 185,600 square miles: that the total amount of her Population (exclusively of that of the Piedmontese Departments, which is reckoned at 1,946,800) is 33,104,343; and that the general total of Contributions is 320,165,425 francs, of 24 to the sterling pound's metallic value.

These Tables prove that France, by her conquests, has increased her antient territory by an extent of 23,790 square miles, and her population by 5,114,419 persons, (without including Piedmont, estimated at nearly two millions,) which is nearly 215 to a square mile.

The Chevalier adds:

'If now we deduct 5,114,419 souls for 23,790 square miles, the extent of the conquered countries, we shall find that the population of former France amounted to 27,989,924 souls, over 161,810 square miles of territory, which was little more than 172 inhabitants for a mile; whereas, that of the conquered countries gives 215. Thus it appears that the population of former France amounts, in a square number, to 28,000,000 souls, and that of present France to 35,000,000; that, consequently, its population is increased one-fourth, and most probably its riches and produce in a still higher proportion. If, as it is generally reckoned, the population of Great Britain, Spain, Prussia, Russia, and Austria, amount to 14—10—7—21—and 24 millions inhabitants, that of France is double to and one half more than that of Great-Britain, treble to and one half more than that of Spain, five fold to that of Prussia: it exceeds that of Austria by two thirds, and that of Russia by one half. Since France has united this immense superiority in population to so many other advantages which she derives from the concentration of her territory, from the strength of her frontiers, from her situation between the two seas, from the possession of so many navigable rivers, in short from the abundance and variety of her productions, what is become of the political balance of Europe? But if in the same scale with France are added, Switzerland, Holland, Spain, Southern Italy, and the adjacent parts of Germany, which every one of them are subjected and tributary

butary to that Empire, there will no longer be any balance between France and all the other independent powers of Europe together, if France be permitted to hold her controul over all those countries.'

In the summary of the Counties of England and Wales, the author states the total of their Population at 9,343,578, that of Ireland at 4,500,000, and that of Scotland at 2,500,000, making a grand total for the United Kingdom of 16,343,578.

London is stated to contain 864,845 persons

Manchester -	84,020	
Liverpool -	77,653	
Birmingham -	73,670	352,150
Bristol -	63,645	
Leeds - -	53,162	

On the authority of private information, the Chevalier stated the population of Ireland and Scotland as above: but, in the Advertisement, he acknowleges himself to have been incorrect, and gives the numbers according to the official returns; making the first to be somewhat more than 4,000,000, and the second somewhat more than 1,607,760. If, however, the summary gave the population of Ireland and Scotland in numbers surpassing the truth, it omitted that of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, Sark, the Scilly Islands, and the Isle of Man, the inhabitants of which are reckoned at above 80,000; so that the total amount of the Population of the United Kingdom is 15,031,338 persons, viz. about three-sevenths of the population of France. This may appear a discouraging statement: but, continues the author,

'If we include the population of her extensive American Colonies, and her vast and very populous dominions in the East-Indies, the difference will entirely disappear. If at the same time we reflect, that the population of the Mother Country is concentrated in a compact territory, which, thanks to her insular situation and her formidable marine, is in reality a fortress; that the Colonies are inaccessible to the impotent rage of our enemy; that both of them carry on, together, a commerce of manufactured and territorial products, equal, or even superior, to that of the combined Nations of Europe; that throughout the Colonies, as well as in the Mother Country, there reigns an universal spirit of attachment to a Government which diffuses prosperity, happiness, and liberty, into every corner of its vast empire; we cannot entertain the smallest doubt respecting the powerful means this Country possesses, of overturning the destructive projects entertained by an abandoned miscreant, against a Nation that will ever scorn his principles, and be able to baffle completely all his wicked attempts.'

The vast increase of France by the late war is an event which all Europe has reason to deplore: but, if France could resist all Europe leagued against her, how much more is Britain enabled, by the mere circumstance of her position, to repel the

force which a single state can bring against her? France, from recent experience, has no right to count on superior bravery. She can only attack us on our shores by detachments, which must, in part at least, be discomfited by our fleets; and we must be greatly changed, if, when called to fight *pro aris et focis*, successive armies will not be ready to dispute every inch of ground with the invading foe. It is lamentable, however, that the population of states should he considered only in reference to war. When will the time arrive, in which nations will consult, not how they may annoy, but how they may most advantageously interchange the bounties of Nature, and the blessings of Industry!

Mo.y.

ART. XII. *A Refutation of the Libel on the Memory of the late King of France*, published by Helen Maria Williams under the Title of Political and Confidential Correspondence of Louis XVI. By A. F. Bertrand de Moleville, Minister of State. Translated from the original Manuscript by R. C. Dallas, Esq. 8vo. pp. 102. 2s. 6d. sewed. Cadell and Davies. 1804.

NEITHER the talents which dulness alone can refuse to Miss Williams, nor the protection with which her sex environs her, prevented us from animadverting with severity on the strange and unnatural sentiments advanced by her, in the work to which this pamphlet refers*; but, while we did not shrink from the discharge of our duty, we trust that we did not forget the courtesy which is claimed by the fair. It is true that the revolutionary heroine had given the author before us bitter provocation, and must, on other grounds, have appeared in his eyes a heinous offender; yet still, as a lady was the combatant, we conjectured that something of chivalrous generosity would have been displayed by a *Gentilhomme* of the old school; and that the controversy, though warm, would have displayed, on his part, a quick sense of delicacy, and all the nice shades of good breeding.

Such being our expectations, we have now to state that we have been grievously disappointed; since, instead of a model of elegant reproof, and of refined chastisement, we meet with abuse of the most gross and vulgar kind, more suitable to the meridian of a certain well-known place in this metropolis, than becoming a man who had breathed the air of the French court. Our mistaken countrywoman might deserve little quarter; yet it may be thought that there were considerations which the *ci-devant* minister owed to himself, and which ought to have secured her

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* See Review for March last, p. 225.

from

from such harsh treatment. He gallantly thanks the lady for her abuse of him: but his acknowlegements might have been omitted, since he has more than repaid her in quantity, and in kind. Indeed the seurrility, into which he descends, ill agrees with the contempt which he professes to entertain for his fair opponent, and indicates that in this vaunt there is more of bravado than of truth. The minister of state deigns to ransack all her numerous volumes on the French Revolution, and to cull from them the most unwarrantable passages. Few writers could submit unhurt to this ordeal, applied to works sent into the world at very different periods, and relating to an event which has assumed such divers aspects, and which has exhibited, in successive changes, such varying features. We are aware that this apology does not afford a sufficient shelter for the lady, and we do not profess to exculpate her: we solely animadvert on the sort of treatment which she has experienced in the present instance.—As the greater part of this tract is personal, we have been imperceptibly led to descant thus long on personality: but we shall now advert to its more material contents.

The author conjectures, with great probability, that the letters to the King of Prussia, and to the Baron de Breteuil, were furnished to Miss Williams by the latter; and we are told that the poor old Baron is so much hurt at the use which has been made of them, that he has fretted himself into a fit of illness. The letter to the King of Prussia is that on which Miss W. principally relied, in order to establish the insincerity of Louis XVI. to the extent for which she contended. The effect of this document entirely depends on its date; that which it bears in the published work is 3d December 1791: but M. Bertrand maintains that this is not the true date, and that the original one was 1790. The reasons which he adduces in favour of this proposition appear to us very strong; and this point being established, he alleges that there is nothing in the letter which invalidates his assertion that the king remained unchangeably faithful to his engagements, after his second acceptance of the constitution. By this expression, however, he can mean only a naked literal conformity to them; not an *ex-animo* acceptance of that instrument, and a *bonâ fide* observance of it. The memoirs of this writer himself, as Miss Williams observes, in every page contradict a different supposition; while the very appointment of the author to the ministry of the marine, and the confidence with which he tells us he was honoured, incontestibly prove this to have been the extent of the Monarch's fidelity.

With regard to the authenticity of the Royal letters as published by Miss Williams, it will be recollected that, while we declined all elaborate investigation of the matter, professing to leave it to persons more competent, and whose opportunities more favoured a successful examination, we stated the inclination of our minds to be in favour of their genuineness. We are glad to find ourselves sanctioned, with respect to the grounds on which we went, by the authority of this writer; who admits that these letters, though he treats most of them as fabrications, contain the *opinions* and *real sentiments* of Louis XVI. Seven only however, out of the seventy-two, of which number they consist, will he allow to have been the productions of his royal master; and he points out various minute circumstances, and alleges several reasons, which induce him to consider the other sixty-five as spurious. Selecting seven out of the sixty-five, he deduces from their contents strong grounds for questioning their authenticity; and he professes to be able to exhibit similar proofs of the forgery of the rest: but he declines the attempt. We are sorry that he has stopped thus short. Had he pursued this task, he would, in our opinion, have better consulted the respect due to the memory of the murdered Prince, and better served the cause to which he is devoted, than by mis-spending time in collecting together objectionable paragraphs from the now almost forgotten revolutionary works of his fair antagonist.

Miss W. having in one of her letters represented the people of England as approving the proceedings on the 10th of August, we feel obliged to Mr. Bertrand for vindicating the nation from so foul a charge:

'On what ground (asks he) has Miss Williams the assurance thus to implicate her countrymen in her regicide sentiments? What a juncture has she selected to do them such injustice? It was when England was receiving, with a most exalted hospitality, Frenchmen of every class, compelled by their attachment to religion and their King to fly their country; it was when the House of Commons, on a motion made by Mr. Fox and seconded by Mr. Sheridan, (December 20th, 1792,) voted an address to the King, to express to him the indignation and horror of the whole nation on the situation of the King of France, and on the injustice and barbarity of the fate to which he was doomed.'

M. Bertrand observes, with respect to the style of the late king, that

'It was simple and clear, but always careless, and frequently incorrect. I know no letter, no writing of his, and I am not afraid to assert that there is not a single one existing, in which some negligence of style or grammatical error is not to be found; even his Will is not entirely

entirely free from those little blemishes; and they are the more valuable, as, without injuring the beauty of that immortal act, they confirm its authenticity. All those letters therefore, so correctly and elegantly written, which Miss Williams publishes as originals, must be considered as not authentic; they can no more be attributed to Louis XVI. than to Henry IV. His opinions, indeed, and sentiments may be found in them; but those lofty expressions, that style so pure, so academic, were never his language.'

Both M. Bertrand and Miss Williams are too much of partisans to appreciate properly the events of the French Revolution: but their differences, had the former been less personal, might have led to the elucidation of certain important parts of its history.

Jo.

ART. XIII. *An Answer to Mr Pitt's Attack upon Earl St. Vincent and the Admiralty*, in his Motion for an inquiry into the State of the Naval Defence of the Country, on the 15th of March 1804. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Ebers.

THE late Board of Admiralty, and the noble Earl who presided at it, have found in this writer a spirited and able advocate. He reduces the accusation into these three heads:

'First—"That the Admiralty had not augmented that species of force which was most particularly adapted to the peculiar circumstances of the empire."

'Secondly—"That in several years of the late war, greater exertions than on the present occasion were made, both absolutely and relatively, with respect to the force of the enemy, as well in equipping ships as in raising men."

'Thirdly—"That a sufficient number of contracts, for the building of ships of war, have not been made by the present Board of Admiralty, either for the service of the present moment, or for the future preservation of the British Navy."

Under the first head, he observes that the Rt. Honorable accuser ought to have proved the superior excellence of the gun-boat system, before he ventured to censure any other; and he maintains the total ineligibility of such a plan, as requiring nearly twice the number of men that are wanted according to the present mode. He says that, if it were adopted, one half of our sailors would not be more than sufficient to mask the single port of Boulogne; that one ship of war is a match for almost any number of gun-boats; that, for certain purposes, the late Board held this sort of force to be useful, and had set it on a footing much more respectable than that on which it was under Mr. Pitt's administration; that there is at present in commission a flotilla of this kind, which carries

1311 guns,

1311 guns, and which is manned by 25,570 men, whereas the same sort of force, while Mr. Pitt was at the helm, never exceeded 139 guns; and that 86 out of the 120 gun-boats, which constituted the whole of the flotilla in the time of the same minister, were found to be badly constructed, to be wholly unfit for use, and were condemned by the Navy Board.

To obviate the second of the preceding charges, the writer states that Mr. Pitt's ministry was only able in one whole year, after the last war began, to put in commission 268 ships; while the number brought forwards by the Earl of St. Vincent, in nine months, amounted to 351, besides 1241 armed vessels of different kinds; and that in the latter period the ships of the enemy had diminished from their total amount in the former, in the proportion of six to five, while our force was superior in that of seven to five. He observes that Mr. Pitt and his colleagues entered on war surrounded by the stores which had accumulated during a long period of peace, and that they were not required to create an immense land force, but to attend solely to naval preparations: whereas Lord St. Vincent was called to equip the navy when the nation had scarcely found time to breathe after a war which had exhausted our utmost resources, and was retarded in consequence of the waste and improvident consumption of his predecessors, and of the universal want of order and regulation in every department. Still, says his advocate, his superior experience and activity enabled him in nine months to send out against France alone a naval force three times as great as that with which the country, after nine years of preparation, was furnished in 1801, in order to face the fleets of all the maritime powers, both those of the South and those of the North of Europe. The ships of the line in 1804 are within seventeen, and shortly will be within five, (twelve more being nearly ready,) of their numerical amount in 1801. The whole naval force of the latter year was 650 vessels only, while that of the present amounts to 1,660; a force not only almost three times greater, but containing fewer of those kinds of vessels which are unimportant in the scale of defence. He apologizes to the Right Honourable Gentleman for stating to him the difference in the expenditure in the two respective years. In 1801, 16,429,537l. were required for the naval department, to be laid out on no more than 650 vessels; while in 1804, for 1,660 vessels, only 9,951,378l. were voted.

Under the third head, the zealous defender of the Noble Earl inveighs against the system prevalent when Mr. Pitt was in power, of constructing two thirds of the navy in merchants' yards; as well as against the idleness and waste of treasure allowed in those of His Majesty. Lord St. Vincent is said to have

have contrived a reformation of these evils, to have added considerably to the number of ships built in the royal yards, and to have increased tenfold the labour produced there by the same number of hands. Mr. Pitt laid it down that, in war, no new ships could be built in the royal dock-yards, because the repairs of the navy would require all the hands there employed; whereas, in consequence of arrangements proposed to be introduced by the Noble Earl, the usual number of hands would be able to add yearly to the naval force of the country thirteen sail of the line, with a proportionate number of frigates; besides performing all the repairs which the service may require, and working only at the rate that is allowed in the merchants' yards. According to the settled prices of the Navy Board for work, the wages for building the whole British Navy, masts and yards included, would not amount to two millions. In the last seven years, a sum has been expended which would have been sufficient to replace the whole navy; and yet in three times seven years, not a fourteenth part of the whole navy has been launched from the King's yards! Is this, then, asks our author, the activity, zeal, and spirit of the Right Hon. Gentleman's friends?—and are these the persons whom he proposes as a model to the board at which Lord St. Vincent presided?

If the facts here stated be correct, and the representations well-founded, it will be impossible for any impartial man to withhold his tribute of gratitude to the late Admiralty Board, for the services which it had rendered, and which it was in a course of rendering to the country; as well as not to regret the fate which it has experienced, since this discussion took place. We profess not, however, to form any judgment on the case, nor to direct that of our readers: merely recording the principal facts and arguments of those who pretend to a greater knowlege of the subject.

Some other tracts on this controversy have appeared, which we hope to consider in our next number. *Jo.*

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For JULY, 1804.

EDUCATION.

Art. 14. *Sequel to the Pronouncing Spelling Book:* containing about 2000 Words from Mr. Murray's English Reader, Dr. Enfield's Speaker, and other School Books; with their Signification and Explana-

Explanation from Mr. Walker's Pronouncing Dictionary, &c. &c. By Mrs. Wilmshurst. 12mo. 1s. 6d. Conder, &c.

Great care and attention appear to have been employed by Mrs. W. in this selection for the use of her pupils. Her labours in the service of youth have been already noticed by us in the course of the present year; and we are happy in having a new opportunity of recommending to public patronage the exertions of a deserving and experienced instructress. Mans.

Art. 15. *Abrégé de l'Histoire Universelle, pour la Direction des jeunes gens, &c. Par feu* M. Vernet, *Professeur à Genève.* Small 12mo. 1s. 6d. Cadell and Davies.

This very concise abridgement of Universal History has much merit, and deserves the pains taken by the editor to republish it in England. It divides history into fifteen periods; of which, seven are allotted to Antient History, five to the middle ages, and three to modern.—The author had an extensive acquaintance with historical records, and a perspicuous mode of arranging the principal points.—At the 29th page, an error has crept in, and the period of Constantine is made 132, whereas it ought to have been 312 of the Christian Æra. Do

Art. 16. *English Parsing, comprising the Rules of Syntax,* exemplified by appropriate Lessons under each Rule, &c. &c. By James Giles, Master of the Free School, Gravesend. 12mo. 2s. Robinsons.

These rules may perhaps be found of service by those parents, who, as the author supposes is often the case, undertake to instruct their children without a competent knowlege of English Grammar. Where this defect, however, is not the misfortune of the teacher, we should conceive that oral instruction would supersede the necessity of these lessons. Do

Art. 17. *An Easy Introduction to M. Wailly's French Grammar.* In two separate Books. By Blanch Mercy. 12mo. 2s. each, bound. C. and R. Baldwin.

One of these little volumes is intended for the use of the instructress, the other for the exercise of the female pupil.—The exercises appear to be drawn up with care, and the directions to the teacher are very full and minute. Do

Art. 18. *Skeleton of the Latin Accidence.* By J. Carey. Pasted on folding Boards. 2s. Longman and Co.

This *wooden* expedient will happily obviate one charge against the pupil,—that of *tearing* and *dogs-earing* his book: but we do not observe any other material advantage likely to accrue. The tenses are not kept sufficiently distinct on these boards; and the eye of the learner, we should apprehend, would be confused. Do

Art. 19. *The Young Englishman's Manual:* containing, Part 1. a Geographical and Topographical Description of England. Part 2. a general View of the Constitution, Revenue, Ecclesiastical, Civil, and Military Establishments of England. By B. Price. 2d Edition, considerably enlarged. 12mo. 4s. Boards. Sael and Co.

This

This is a very useful introduction for young persons to the local knowlege of their own country, as well as to an acquaintance with its primary institutions.—Much information is detailed in a small compass, and we doubt not that the design will meet due encouragement. D.º

NOVELS.

Art 20. *Letters from Mrs. Palmerstone to her Daughter.* By Mrs. Hunter, of Norwich. 12mo. 3 Vols. 15s. Boards. Longman and Rees.

In our remarks on the merits of this lady's talents as a novel-writer, on two former occasions, we principally objected to the multiplicity of characters which were introduced; and in consequence of which the narrative became an intricate labyrinth, calculated to perplex and bewilder the reader in his search after entertainment. We are glad to state that this objection is removed in the present instance, by the adoption of detached narratives for each letter; which enable the writer to pourtray, with just effect, several distinct and instructive scenes of human life, without the embarrassment of leading the same individuals through a lenghthened series of events.—The conduct of this latter kind of narrative requires peculiar talents; and we think that those of Mrs. H. are more happily exerted in depicting multifarious views of the virtues or vices incident to mortals.

The present letters evidently display a habit of observation on men and manners, and no mean degree of discrimination in regard to characters: but it is of more importance to add that they exhibit, in the person of the author, the Patroness of Virtue; and while they furnish many useful lessons for the young female reader, they will not fail to amuse, and perhaps to instruct, those of maturer years. The allegorical tales are pleasing; and in particular that of the Mother-in-law does honour to the understanding and maternal tenderness of the writer. D.º

Art. 21. *The Cave of Cosenza:* a Romance of the 18th Century; altered from the Italian, by Eliza Nugent Bromley. 12mo. 2 Vols. 12s. Boards. Robinsons.

The hero of this tale, Frederic Fitzjames, after many years of conjugal felicity, is suddenly induced by the fascinating arts of a female stranger to forsake his dearest connections, and to surrender himself a captive to the charms and wiles of an abandoned Syren. Conducted to Italy, he begins to discover his error: but, by the villany of Baptista, who is in league with his mistress, he is carried off a prisoner, and let down by ropes into the cavern of a mountain. Here he is monthly supplied with bread and water, till at length he discovers a passage in the cave, which conducts to a den of robbers. With them he afterward is compelled to associate, and becomes a friend and favourite with their captain.—The character of this captain is represented as the most daring and atrocious; vindictive even to the perpetration of murder and the foulest assassination; and yet friendly, benevolent, and anxiously seeking objects of his kindness and protection: such a character cannot exist. A robber may be capable of a sudden act of generosity: but to suppose his general conduct to be influenced by principles so irreconcileable and opposite, is to suppose that "Satan can be divided against himself." D.º

POLITICAL.

Art. 22. *A Letter to the Right Hon. Lord King*, in Defence of the Conduct of the Directors of the Banks of England and Ireland, whom his Lordship (in a Publication intitled, "Thoughts on the Restriction of Payments in Specie," &c &c.) accuses of Abuse of their Privileges. With Remarks on the Cause of the great Rise of the Exchange between Dublin and London, and the Means of equalizing it. By Henry Boase. 8vo. 2s. Nicol. 1804.

We presume that the Bank Directors are honourable men; and if the Restriction-Bill, with the circumstances accompanying it, originally was, and still continues to be, a necessary measure, the inquiries to which this transaction has led might be conducted without implicating the moral character of these gentlemen. It is fair to believe that they acted to the best of their judgment for themselves and for the country: but how far it was politic in the Government to place the Bank of England in such a situation that it was under the necessity of applying to parliament for a bill restricting its cash payments, and what may be the ultimate result of this step, are questions about which monied men and political arithmeticians are at variance. Some think that the increased circulation of paper is a benefit, while others assert their preference of metallic money, and predict evils from the excessive diffusion of tissue currency. Mr. Boase, in volunteering the defence of the Bank Directors, is in course the panegyrist of paper money, singing its praise "above gold, even above fine gold:" but though, in some places, he has suggested hints not unworthy of Lord King's consideration, he, in others, argues not only superficially, but even in the teeth of his own statements. We shall not enter into his justification of the conduct of the Bank Directors, on the ground of their having 'a larger stake in the public-weal than in the capital of the Bank,' but proceed at once to his argument, in which he contends that notes and guineas are of equal value.

Mr. B. says, if a foreign merchant were to come in person to receive a bill for 105l. sterling, and he was paid an hundred guineas in gold, these would avail him no more in the British market than 105l. in Bank notes; *because the law forbids him to melt or export the current coin.* As in another place he confesses that he knows not any law to prevent clipping and melting, when the price of bullion encourages this practice, we apprehend that few persons will give much credit to Mr. B.'s *because.* In pp. 38 and 39, he completely proves that 100 guineas and 105l. Bank notes are not of precisely the same value in the estimation of the Bank of England; since, if they were melted and taken to the bullion office, the Bank would give more than 105l. in notes for the ingot thus made out of the guineas. It may not be amiss to let Mr. Boase speak for himself on this delicate subject:

'No man is obliged to take a Bank note for payment of a Bank note: he may go to the bullion office and purchase gold or silver for it at the market price. The Bank charter does not prescribe the payment of its notes in guineas; and where would be the justice or equity

equity of compelling the Bank to pay its notes in gold at the rate of 3l. 17s. 6d per ounce, for which it pays 4l. 1s. or upwards? and what right has a man to expect the Bank should furnish him with gold at five or ten per cent. under the market price? at the market price they have never ceased to supply it, and therefore in point of equity, there has been no suspension.'

What can be more evident, from this very view of the subject, than that the nominal value of any sum in Bank notes is not equal to the same amount in gold coin?

Gentlemen may write as much as they please on the advantages of paper circulation: but there is no possibility of keeping its value on a par with coin, by any other means than the old-fashioned principle of notes being convertible into cash at the will of the holder. If notes are beneficial in so far as they increase the quantity of the circulating medium, yet dangers are to be apprehended from their excess. When paper operates in concert with coin, not to its exclusion, there is no necessity for vindicating its use: it then speaks for itself, and wants no puffer. We cannot therefore join with Mr. B. in his congratulations to the Nation on our 'substituting the least in lieu of the most expensive medium of circulation;' for guineas are less perishable than paper, and (as Mr. B. allows) are 'valuable in all changes of political affairs,' which Bank notes may not be.

The author's account of the rise and fall of the Exchange, as owing to the balance of Exchange operations, is plausible: but we cannot say so much of his plea in behalf of Bank notes, which, he contends, must operate to diminish the price of bullion. 'The decreased consumption of bullion, in consequence of the prevailing use of paper-money, had a tendency to diminish the price.' If so, how comes it that gold still is so high in the market? Is not this a singular mode of contemplating the subject? Mr. B. recommends it to the Irish Bank *to deal*, like the Bank of England, *in bullion*, and to be the great emporium of that commodity in Ireland; believing that this practice will serve to correct the exchange between Dublin and London, and be of essential service to that part of the United Kingdom.

Mo-y.

Art. 23. *Letters on the Importance of the present War.* By Alan Macleod. Letter I. The Question stated.—Letter II. Strictures on the Constitution resumed—View of the relative Importance of the leading Topic of Discussion, that the War in which we are engaged is both necessary and just. 8vo. 1s. each. Vernor and Hood.

These pages present us with words that burn, language that glows, and eloquence that blazes: but the composition is not polished into elegance, nor adorned with any graces. A panegyric on our constitution less qualified, and a description of its blessings more highly wrought, we have never perused. The contrast between Great Britain and France was never more strongly drawn: the former is all excellence, all perfection; the latter is all misery, deformity, and infamy: its chief the blackest tyrant, his subjects slaves, and his projects detestable.

In his second letter, the author directs his energies against notions which he considers as not less weakening the nerve of patriotism on the present occasion, than as leading to mischief if adopted. Universal suffrage he pronounces to be universal evil, and annual elections to be annual commotions.—According to him, Bonaparte was on the point of seizing the East when the war commenced; and its timely beginning alone saved our distant possessions. He disapproves, however, the style of abuse in which Mr. Windham and others have indulged against the Chief Consul: and he says that we ought to fight with arms, not with venom. Yet much spleen is mingled with these patriotic effusions. Though a late panegyrist of Grotius may have bestowed on his favourite author very exaggerated praise, it by no means follows that the justly-venerated sage merits the harsh reflections which Mr. Macleod throws out against him.

We apprehend that these tributes of public spirit are intended to meet the eye of Mr. Attorney-General. Where his corrections have produced effects so salutary, and inspired sentiments so patriotic, it may be expected that he should interpose to mitigate the rigour of punishment, and to shorten its duration. Jo.

Art. 24. *Remarks addressed to the Country, not to Parties.* By a National Observer. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Debrett. 1804.

The object of this sensible and dispassionate tract is to impress the public with the importance of having abler ministers at foreign courts; to excite in government a greater activity in repelling the calumnies so incessantly and extensively circulated by France against this country; to invite administration to place more confidence in the people, to make them more a party in public affairs, to confide to them more of its secrets, and to acquaint them with the causes and objects of the grand struggle in which they are engaged. The writer states their claims to this treatment, and pronounces a warm and well-merited panegyric on the patriotism recently displayed by all orders of men. In his opinion, foreign nations are jealous of us, and would regard our fall as a benefit to them, at least as far as commerce is concerned. He advises the reduction of the national debt by a tax of a quarter per cent. on all transfers of stock; and also a war tax of two per cent. on all property, to be paid in half-yearly instalments for two years, and that it be renewed if the public necessities require it. It was, he tells us, the practice of the court of Versailles, and is now that of St. Cloud, to attach one or two persons to every mission at the principal courts, from among whom envoys were afterward chosen; and he recommends it to Great Britain to adopt a similar conduct. He regards the decisions in our courts of admiralty and appeal as too favourable to captors; and he proposes that the prize laws should be revised, and that we should manifest more liberality in our commercial relations:—concluding with observing that our superiority at sea, and our pre-eminence in navigation, trade, and colonial possessions, can best be made palatable to foreign nations by justice, liberality, temper, and forbearance; and that haughty conduct is the forerunner of the fall of nations. Jo.

Art.

Art. 25. *Facts and Illustrations relative to the Military Preparations carried on in France*, in the Interval between the Conclusion of the Treaty of Amiens and the Commencement of the present War. From the French of Sir Francis d'Ivernois. 8vo. pp. 66. 2s. 6d. Hatchard. 1804. [Also an Edition in French.]

This worthy knight certainly shares in many of the qualities which distinguished his renowned predecessor of la Mancha; since he brandishes his spear not less valiantly, is equally apt to mistake chimeras for realities, and combats them with similar resoluteness. Rarely, if we except some of the other performances of our *preux chevalier*, has the old adage, *parturiunt montes*, been so applicable as to the title and contents of the production before us. We differ *toto cœlo* from the translator, in whose opinion this pamphl t exhibits a very important part of the question between this country and France, in a clearer light than any other publication or argument that has appeared:—but let us examine these pages, and see into what the *Immenses Préparatifs* resolve themselves? The knight states the gasconades of the First Consul, and of his ministers, respecting the formidable armies which they were setting on foot, and would soon have in readiness; he also makes mention of sums, unusually large, decreed to be expended on the navy: but, at the same time, he takes considerable pains to prove, and clearly deduces it from his profound knowlege of French finances, that these statements were vain and empty boasts, which the funds of the Consul could never permit him to realize. Sir Francis acquiesces in Bonaparte's declaration that he could not, in less than ten years, create a marine force capable of coping with the royal navy of England, and shews that his enumeration of the men in arms in France was grossly false. We own ourselves ignorant of the rules of logic by which these concessions, and this sort of reasoning, which we admit to be just, prove the *Immenses Préparatifs* inscribed on the title page of the present tract, and which roused in us no inconsiderable degree of curiosity. We find in these pages a very pompous enumeration of the grievances which led to the rupture of the peace of Amiens: but the willing advocate of government policy, under all its transformations, forgets that the minister of the day, when most if not all of these obstacles had been made known, gave parliament unequivocal assurances of the great probability that the peace would be lasting; assurances which led cautious British merchants, who did not happen to have better foreign political information than Mr. Addington, to embark their capital in speculations which were universally hazardous, and in many instances ruinous. Jo.

Art. 26. *Address to all the Sovereigns of Europe*; in French and in English. 8vo. pp. 34. 1s. 6d. each Edition. Prosper and Co.

This pamphlet enumerates the political delinquencies of Bonaparte, and the dangers arising to sovereigns and states from his ambitious and unprincipled projects: warmly exhorting the old governments of Europe to unite, not merely for their own safety, but for the more active purpose of crushing the common enemy. Perhaps the principal objection to all this advice is its impracticability. The charges

may be well laid, and the punishment may be well proportioned, but how to carry it into effect is a question which is not here solved. The author loses no opportunity of commending the conduct of the English nation, and of pointing to it as an example deserving of imitation. Jo.

Art. 27. *A Letter to the Earl of Wycombe*, &c. &c. from Mr. Miles, on the present State of Ireland. 8vo. 3s. Faulder.

We need only look to Ireland for a confirmation of the truth, that *narrow policy* will not place the security of empires on a *broad bottom;* and it is high time for Government to open its eyes to its own errors. While it is vigilant against disaffection, and its offspring rebellion, let it trace these evils to their real source; and consider that there must have been something radically defective in the conduct of administration, when the loyalty of millions is obliterated, and bayonets and gibbets become necessary to public tranquillity. The fact is evident that Ireland can justly complain of grievances; and the statements and arguments of such a manly, liberal, and enlightened writer as Mr. Miles ought, for her sake, as well as for that of the empire at large, to receive the most deliberate consideration of the Cabinet. The confidence of the people of Ireland must be obtained; and to secure it, the Government must do them justice. The principle of loyalty is naturally strong; and when a nation is fairly used, Government obtains an ascendancy over the public mind which requires not to be propped by force, and which is the best preservative against insurrection. Mr. Miles is so fully convinced of the importance of his subject, that he observes:

'The Minister who will have the virtue to point out to the Throne the absolute necessity of investigating the causes of those dangerous discontents, and who will enter into the question with a zeal and fidelity equal to the magnitude of the object, will deserve a statue of gold to be erected to his memory; for, in that case, he will become, not in a figurative, but in the real sense of the word, the Saviour of his Country!'

The measure which Mr. M. recommends is to relieve the Catholics from tythes, and to place them in every respect on a footing with the other subjects of the empire. As he speaks his mind with much clearness and ingenuousness, we shall allow him to explain his own project for the amelioration of Ireland:

'To be explicit, for dissimulation forms no part of my character, Ireland has in fact been under the dominion of an aristocracy not very correct in its public morals, which, availing itself of that influence which never fails to accompany great names and great wealth, and finding no very great check or counterpoise to illegitimate pretensions from the hand that held the balance of power, monopolised, in some degree, the whole government of the country, and often dictated when it should have obeyed. The measure of the Union, so boldly conceived and executed by the late Chancellor of the Exchequer, attacking, as it did, not only the interests of this powerful junto, but the national pride and prejudices of the whole kingdom, would never have been carried, without an assurance that the concession should be recompensed by Catholic emancipation. It is no longer denied, that this

was

was at least one of the conditions of the Union; and, the Union being acceded to, this country is bound in honour to respect the conditions on which it was obtained, and the more so, as its object was to correct a radical evil in the administration of Ireland; an evil which rendered her a kind of mill-stone about the neck of every Minister to whom the King ostensibly confided his affairs. This, I conceive, to have been the motive of Mr. Pitt for depriving Ireland of a legislature, the loss of which is more to be regretted by vanity than justice, because I cannot discover any other that could so well justify a measure evidently harsh; the harshness of which, however, would have been qualified, and perhaps totally done away, if he had been permitted to perform his part of the contract. Why the bond was violently rent, torn asunder, cancelled, and disavowed, the very instant the boon was obtained, is a subject too delicate for discussion at this moment; but it retains a firm hold on my mind, and shall not descend to posterity without comment. Catholic emancipation, or, in words to the full as energetic, and perhaps more appropriate, legislative justice to a vast proportion of the population of Ireland, would, by consolidating the affections of His Majesty's subjects in that country, consolidate the power and dominion of his Throne, the general interests of the United Kingdoms, and render the British Empire invulnerable to foreign force; while, on the other hand the return, or even occasional residence, of gentlemen on their estates would supersede the necessity of having that mischievous description of people called middle men, who extort from laborious industry its utmost farthing. The bishops, as bishoprics are certainly not sinecures, should, for a variety of reasons, be required to reside on their respective dioceses; and, as their vocations imply as much, and indeed enjoin it, a requisition to that effect, on the part of Government, would have nothing in it to wound their feelings, or to hurt their interests.'

If Government would steer a manly and direct course with respect to Ireland, Mr. Miles is confident, and confident with good reason, that the happiest issue would be the consequence. Moy.

Art. 28. *An Inquiry into the Depreciation of Irish Bank Paper*, its Effects and Causes, and a Remedy proposed. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Longman and Co.

The author of this pamphlet appears to be well acquainted with the subject which he undertakes to discuss. In the first place, he states the fact that Irish Bank paper is depreciated to the amount of 7 or 8 per cent. or thereabouts; he then specifies the effects of this depreciation on the different classes of the people of Ireland; explains the cause of this evil to consist in the ballance of remittances being constantly against Ireland; and observes, in the chapter on remedies to be applied, that 'the only effectual mode of equalizing the exchange between England and Ireland, so long as there is a continual balance of remittances from one country to the other, is by establishing a common medium of currency between the two countries. So long as there is a medium of currency in the one country equal in nominal, but deficient in productive value, to the medium of currency in the other, the exchange must be disadvantageous to the former in the proportion of the productive value.

'But if there be a common medium of currency, exchange never can rise much above par. If gold were the medium, exchange must be regulated by the expence, trouble, and risk of bringing gold from one to the other. If the notes of the same bank were the medium, exchange would be regulated in the same way, the notes of a common bank never could be much dearer in the one place than the other.

'There appear to me then to be but three modes of restoring exchange to its natural level, and of relieving Ireland from the very weighty, grievous, and (to the state unproductive) tax to which Ireland is at present unquestionably subject—

'The issue of specie;

'The establishment of English bank notes, as the medium of currency;

'Or, the introduction of such a number of English bank notes, as shall prevent the depreciation of Irish notes.'

The first and second modes here proposed are regarded as impracticable: but the author strenuously contends for the adoption of the third; and he particularly recommends that 'the interest of the public debt and all other public payments or disbursements should be paid, if required, in Bank of England notes, at the Treasury.'

The remainder of the pamphlet is occupied in obviating objections, and in elucidating the justice and policy of this measure.

Moy.

MEDICAL.

Art. 29. *An Examination of Dr. Heberden's Observations on the Increase and Decrease of different Diseases, and particularly the Plague.* By Wm. Falconer, M.D. F.R.S. 8vo. pp. 20. Printed at Bath.

In this little essay, the author combats Dr. Hederden's idea, that the principal seat of the plague has at all times been in 'the nastiest parts of dirty, crowded, ill constructed large cities.' Cairo and Constantinople are adduced as examples of this fact: but the author can find no documents which prove that they are particularly dirty, or even so much open to that imputation as many places which have never been visited by this pestilence.—The exhalations at Cairo, from the Canals, when they begin to dry, have been supposed to be a cause of plague: but, if this were the case, the same effect, he thinks, ought to follow in Holland, and in other places, in which the effluvia are more permanent, and more offensive.

'The advantages of cleanliness,' says the author, 'in preventing the spreading of the plague, I am very willing to acquiesce in; but I must confine its merits to the preventing persons being exposed to the infection, as by avoiding the contact of infected clothes; by washing out the infection from them, and from furniture, in a safe and effectual manner; by diluting the poisonous effluvia with fresh air; by preventing its accumulation and concentration; by preventing the infection being collected, and becoming more virulent by confinement in linen, &c. that has been worn a long time, &c.

'These may, and will, I doubt not operate to hinder people from being exposed to the infection; but I much doubt if personal cleanliness will make any one less liable to receive the infection, provided he

he is exposed to it. The Turks are as clean as any set of people whatever; their life is little more than a series of ablutions and purgations, but they die of the plague as soon as any other persons, because they take no precautions to avoid the infection. That the cleanliness of modern times has improved the health of our countrymen, and prevented the spreading of infectious diseases, I am ready to acknowledge; but cannot believe that the plague, and even the sweating sickness, were owing to the dirt and filth of former ages.'

Madrid is an instance of a city which has, till lately, been kept in a most dirty state, yet was never visited by the plague; and though many parts of London and other towns of this kingdom, as well as Ireland, are remarkable for filth, this disease has not appeared in the British islands for more than a century.

Dr. Falconer does not agree with Dr. Heberden in thinking that the plague is only a severe putrid fever, and that the jail fever or dysentery can be changed into plague. There are several symptoms, he observes, which are common to the latter and to typhus fever: but he considers the appearance of buboes and carbuncles to be more peculiarly characteristic of the disease, and to be as necessarily concomitant as the eruption in the small-pox. Yell.

Art. 30. *Hints for the Improvement of Trusses*, intended to render their Use less incovenient, and to prevent the Necessity of an Understrap. With the Description of a Truss of easy Construction and slight Expence, for the Use of the Labouring Poor, to whom this little Tract is chiefly addressed. By James Parkinson. 8vo. 9d. Symonds.

The improvements here suggested cannot well be understood without the assistance of the plate annexed to the pamphlet: but they principally consist in the formation of a cheap truss, which may be readily obtained by the poorer orders, and will answer the purpose of keeping up the hernia.

'It is well known, (says the author,) that if a piece of stick, placed between the coils of a piece of rope, fastened at each end to some solid body, be turned round a few times, immediately as the force is removed by which it was turned round, it returns to its former situation with considerable force. Children avail themselves of this power to supply themselves with a little toy, a species of spring gun, which they use for throwing cherry-stones and small pebbles to a moderate distance. A string is fastened for this purpose to the two ends of a bent bone, or piece of cane, and a piece of stick inserted in the middle of the string, is turned round a few times, until by having sufficiently twisted the string, it re-acts with considerable force. If then the end of the stick is drawn out so far that, when urged by the elastic action of the coiled string it shall press against the one side of the cane, it will directly return back to its former situation, on the removal of any pressure by which it had been forced round to the other side, and thus throw any substance placed on it to a certain distance. It is the application of this principle that is here wished to be recommended. This simple instrument, it is proposed, should be sewed on the outside of a belt, formed of girth web, first fitted with straps, or with buttons and button-holes, exactly to the shape of the

belly. The stick may be furnished on the side which is to apply to the belly, with a pad made with leather, filled with folds of flannel, or stuffed with bran. The stick being then brought from underneath, it will there act with a degree of force equal to the tightness with which the cord has been twisted; and, if applied in this state, the protruded part being first reduced, it will in general, be found competent to the retaining of it in its natural position.'

Art. 31. *Observations on the Anti-Phthisical Properties of the Lichen Islandicus; or Iceland Moss:* comprehending explicit Directions for the making and using such Preparations of the Herb and Auxiliaries, which Experience has proved best adapted to the Cure of the different Species of Pulmonary Consumptions of Great Britain. By Richard Reece, &c. 8vo. 1s. Highley.

The principal object of this pamphlet is to recommend the Farina of the Lichen, instead of the Decoction, in those cases in which it may be necessary to employ that remedy. Little advantage, the author thinks, can be obtained from its use, unless two or three ounces are exhibited in the course of twenty-four hours; and as this quantity, given in the usual way, must soon produce disgust in the patient, he prefers the employment of the Farina; which, he says, is exempt from this objection, and 'may be administered, without disgusting the patient, to the extent of three, or even four ounces a day.'

'This preparation is free from the cortical and fibrous parts of the herb. It possesses, in perfection, both the medicinal and dietetic properties; and to form the jelly, does not require that long coction which proves destructive to its bitter quality. It may be exhibited in the quantity of three drachms for a dose, boiled with half an-ounce of chocolate or cocoa in a morning for breakfast. The true Spanish cocoa I have found to answer best; it approaches nearly to the flavour of the chocolate of this country, and being free from sugar, is less liable to disagree with the patient, than the manufactured chocolate which, from the milk, butter, and sugar used in its composition, is generally found more or less acid or rancid.

'This powder may likewise conveniently be made into a kind of pottage, (a form much recommended by Bergius) either in milk, water, or broth, as may appear most suitable to the case of the patient, in the following manner:——To a dessert spoonful of the Farina, add as much cold water as will make it into a soft paste; then pour on by degrees half a pint of boiling water, broth, or warm milk, stirring it briskly the whole time: after boiling for about ten minutes, it will become a smooth thin jelly—A little sugar, currant jelly, liquorice, raisins, cinnamon, butter, wine, or any aromatic may be added, to render it palatable.'

Art. 32. *The Rules of the Medical Institution, for the Sick and Drooping Poor;* with an Explanation of its peculiar Design, and various necessary Instructions. Small 8vo. pp. 145. Printed at Bristol.

The design of this establishment is thus announced by the author of this pamphlet, whom we suppose to be Dr. Beddoes:

'*To check the canker of disease as soon as it fastens on the frame, and to root it out:—the moment any one seems, before his season, inclining to-*

wards the grave, to stretch out a helping hand, raise him upright, and set him firmly upon his footing again; and, as numbers fancy themselves but a trifle out of sorts, though really pining under some deadly disorder, *to undeceive and rescue them—to fill the feeble with strength to discharge the duties of their station—when a weakly childhood marks any one out as likely to be cut off in youth, to give him a fair chance for a long and healthy life in fine, not only to stop short the fatal course of some maladies, but to render the constitution less accessible to them, and to stir up in fathers and mothers an universal spirit of watchfulness over the condition of their tender offspring.'*

The necessity for such an institution, in addition to the various means of relief which before existed, the author endeavours to evince by some popular and judicious remarks on Consumption, Scrophula, and a few other serious maladies.—How far the benevolent hopes of Dr. Beddoes are likely to be realized, we have at present no opportunity of judging; nor are we informed by what means the very desirable objects which he has in view are to be effected He promises us, however, a report at the close of the current year, to shew the benefit produced by this institution; and he engages to lay open an account of the cases, with the whole process of treatment employed.

It would appear that this Charity is a popular one, since 3533 invalids applied to it for relief in the course of the last year.—It was first begun at Bristol Hot Wells: but, as the distance was found to be extremely inconvenient, it was afterward removed to Bristol. Our best wishes attend its progress.

Art. 33. *Medical Ethics;* or a Code of Institutes and Precepts, adapted to the professional Conduct of Physicians and Surgeons; 1. In Hospital Practice. 2. In private or general Practice. 3. In relation to Apothecaries. 4. In Cases which may require a Knowledge of Law. To which is added an Appendix, containing a Discourse on Hospital Duties; also Notes and Illustrations. By Thomas Percival, M. D. F.R.S &c. &c. 8vo. pp. 246. 5s. Boards. Johnson.

We admire the feelings with which the present performance was written. At an advanced period of life, the author was induced to employ his thoughts in framing a set of medical precepts, which might tend to preserve or advance the respectability of a profession in which he had long been an ornament, and to make the intercourse between practitioners more advantageous to their patients and more agreeable to themselves. His inclinations on this subject were also strengthened by a wish to impress a son, who is educated for his own profession, with a high sense of its dignity and importance, and to enable him to prosecute his medical career with honour and utility.

The title page sufficiently designates the objects which the work embraces.—In the treatment of its different divisions, the author shews a judicious and ardent regard to the respectability of his profession, an honourable zeal in the cause of humanity, and a dignified attachment to the duties of religion. The conduct which he inculcates, in the different situations of the medical professor, is not, as may be readily imagined, different from that which custom has

has already established; and therefore the liberal-minded physician or surgeon will only find in the institutes and precepts of Dr. Percival, a compendium of that behaviour laid down which their own experience has demonstrated to be most congenial to the nature of their habits and office: but the student or young practitioner will receive a lesson of propriety and decorum, which cannot fail to have a permanently good effect on his future conduct.

The author is fully impressed with the importance of the duties which a medical man is called to perform; and he gives it as his decided opinion that, following the example of the late learned and amiable Dr. Heberden, he should always retire from the engagements of business as soon as he feels any of those faculties impaired, on which depends the proper exercise of his profession. To determine this period is a delicate and difficult task, and one which he admits must, in a great measure, be left to the moral discretion of the individual.

The chapter which treats of the cases requiring a knowlege of law claims attention, both from the information which it communicates, and from the necessity for some degree of attention, on the part of physicians and surgeons, to legal medicine. An appendix contains a judicious discourse on hospital duties, preached by one of the sons of the author, for the benefit of the Infirmary at Liverpool; also numerous notes and illustrations which will be perused with interest and advantage.

Yell.

POETRY *and the* DRAMA.

Art. 34. *Poesie Liriche di Leucippo Eginèo, P. A. Socio della R. A. di Napoli, e di Cortona*, &c. 8vo. pp. 100. 10s. 6d. Boards. White. 1804.

These lyrical poems consist of an ode to peace, two sonnets, a rural canzonet, and an ode on the origin and decay of nations; the two odes and the canzonet being accompanied by notes and illustrations, in the present modish style of making up a handsome pocket volume. The author's poetical merit is little elevated above that of an Italian school-boy, before he enters the university. In the ode to peace, we find an unhappy mixture of Christian and Pagan machinery; and the country ditty is greatly inferior to the parallel passages from Baldi and Guarini, quoted in the notes. Let us not forget, however, that Signor Eginèo has detailed the *sentimental* process of preparing polenta with the minuteness of an Apicius:

'Or la polenta appresta.
Vediam come la fà.
L' umore bolle già;
La fiamma e' soffia, e desta.
Ecco vi pon del sale
Con mano liberale.'

A single dish of this batter (or hasty) pudding provides the muse with exactly thirty more lines, which become very animated as the *plot thickens*.

The

The political verses possess more truth than poetry. The following stanza, however, is worthy of selection:

'De l'ampio mondo abbracciò sola Roma,
Con l'aquila rapace,
Il vasto impero, e sol bramò le stelle.
La Terra festi doma,
Città superba, con desir fallace!
Chi fè soffrire altrui dura catena,
Suffrir la de.'—Se tu le traccie belle
Di Numa, di Camillo,
Di Cincinnato la vita serena
Seguite avessi, or non saresti oppressa,
Sì misera, e dimessa!
Libero, in sè tranquillo
Fora, e temuto ancora, il bel paese,
Ch' or soffre gravi offese,
Ed onta, e scorno fra' due mari, e l'Alpi.
Da' due be' lidi salpì
Barbara gente, e tante arpie con essa;
Ch' a l' Italici cori
Virtù ritorna a riparar gl'errori.'

Tasso, Petrarch, Milton, Rollin, &c. contribute largely to the annotations. The author informs us, in a small appendix, that his collection is destined for the young; and this intimation, though rather late, disarms our criticism. Yet really, for the sum of half a guinea, the young are intitled to a more liberal allowance of pretty passages, even from Bulmer's press.—In his enumeration of the *comforts* of the poor, our poet has overlooked one, which strikes us very forcibly; namely, their inability to procure the Poesie Liriche of Signor Leucippo Eginèo.

Muir.

Art. 35. *Poems from the Arabic and Persian;* with Notes, by the Author of Gebir. 4to. 1s. 6d. Rivingtons.

Though the characteristic features of the Eastern muse are prominent in these effusions, the English Translator does not venture to assert their authenticity. Being himself ignorant of both the Arabic and the Persian languages, he has been indebted to some French versions of these poems, which are said to have arrived in Europe from India; and these translations of translations are left to speak for themselves. As far as oriental imagery, glowing fancy, wild combinations, rapid transitions, and bold personifications, are evidences of originality, there is little reason to doubt that these poems are of Arabic and Persian origin: but if they should be only imitations, their excellence in this view reflects considerable credit on the European imitator. The titles of these poems, which are all short, are —Address to the Vine—To Ilbra—To the Nightingale—Praises of Abu-Said. (These from the Persian.)—The Son of Sheik Daher on leaving Syria after the murder of his Father—Against Jezzar—On the Affliction of his Wife—On the Death of his Wife—Addressed to Rahdi. (These from the Arabic.)

As

As a specimen of the translations from the Persian, we shall give the lines

'TO THE NIGHTINGALE.

'Candid with thy modesty, grateful with thy shyness,
Sweet nightingale, soon may thy passion prosper.
I heard thee repeatedly call the Fairies,
And saw them array with pearls the eye-lashes of Ilbra.
For she pitied thy plaint from the shadiness of our loves.
I said to Ilbra, "*these are my pearls;*"
She smiled, and showered them into my bosom.
The dove was over her, the rainbow on her cheek.
The pearls of Ilbra are now *my* pearls.
Sweet nightingale, may also thy passion prosper.'

Of the versions from the Arabic, we select the poem intitled

'ON THE DEATH OF HIS WIFE.

'Her voice was sweeter than the sound of waters!
Than waters afar from cataracts
Sweeter was the voice of my beloved.

'The storm descends, and the tent flutters,
* The tent so dark by day, so musical by star-light,
The tent where my bosom hath ever found repose.

'† Bed of bright yellow, had I left thee at Damascus,
Thou needst not have adopted cares and disquiet,
Surrounded with dreams of gain and vows of suspended silk.

'Dyed in the gall of serpents, in the wine of unbelievers,
Thou writhest with pain or creakest with res lessness,
‡ More tiresome than birds, more incessant than jackals.

'* The exclusion of day-light, in Arabia, is, in some degree, the exclusion of heat. The old, the wealthy, and the women, are, for the most part, inactive by day, as we may naturally suppose from the intensity of the climate; but they amuse themselves in the evening with songs and music.'

'† "Bed of bright yellow, &c." I am more pleased with this stanza, which will be despised by the generality of readers, perhaps by the generality of critics, than with any other in the poem. Had the bed of *bright yellow* still belonged to the mercantile citizen of Damascus, it would have *witnessed*, if a note may be poetical, vows of silk, to be suspended in the mosch, if his prayers for gain were granted.'

'‡ "More tiresome than birds." It must be observed, that the birds which pass over, and the few which inhabit, the desert, are all of them destitute of song. The borders of the Red Sea abound with water fowl; which, of every description, are unpleasant in their note. The jackals make an incessant cry by night.'

'Fed

'Fed on the milky neck of my beloved,
And dizzy with the fragrance of her flowering lips,
I beheld, and I resembled, the light impassive sky.

'Was it thou, unfortunate? was thine this happiness?
O hug not the remembrance, O beat it from thy bosom,
It may be thy enemy's, it is no longer thine.

'God is great! repine not, O child and mourner of dust!
The Prophet, who could summon the future to his presence,
Could the Prophet himself make the past return?'

It would not have occurred to an European poet to represent the sound of birds as tiresome; and 'the vows of suspended silk' bespeak an Asiatic, or a person who is well acquainted with oriental customs.

Mo.y.

Art. 36. *Narrative Poems.* By J. D'Israeli. 4to. pp. 65. Boards. Murray.

If we are not now prepared to compliment Mr. D'Israeli with a repetition of that praise which we have rendered him on former occasions *, this difference will be found to arise, not from any change in the critic, but from a failing in the poet. Though poems be narrative, they should be poetry; and he who, *sectantem levia nervi deficiunt animique*, must have forgotten the distinguishing properties of his art. So palpable are Mr. D'Israeli's deficiencies in this respect, that the notice of them can 'yield us no victory;' and we should be blameable if we subjected our readers to 'a yawn,' by 'a long drawn critique' on such verses as these:

'With constant hearts that never know caprice
The price of pleasure—is the wish to please.'

'Their flushing eyes unspeaking rapture wakes,
Quick into pairs the amorous party breaks.'

'Here bade COMINGE the world for ever close,
Soothing his spirit with the dread repose.'

'Hark! to that solemn sound!—the passing bell
Tolls, the still Friery catch the awful knell.'

'I hail the desert which Religion chose,
Severe, to build the Wanderer's last sad House.'

'Tears dropt his stony eyes, and murmurs stole
From his mute tongue—ah, poor distraction's child!
He held *with her who was*, a converse wild.

We leave these specimens of negligence to speak for themselves. Mr. D'Israeli's muse might truly say *Non sum qualis eram*, though she probably will not feel inclined to make the confession.

Do

Art. 37. *Henry and Almeria;* a Tragedy. In Five Acts. By Andrew Birrell. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Longman and Rees.

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* M. R. Vol. iv. p. 312, Vol. xxix. p. 121. N. S. &c.

When

When Swift shewed some of his first verses to Dryden, the old Bard observed, "Cousin Swift, you will never be a Poet." We must, in like manner, gently hint to Mr. Andrew Birrell, that his talents are not exactly adapted to tragedy. He will have the goodness to consider that a tragedy ought to be written in blank verse, which his play does not contain, since most of his lines have a foot too much, or too little; and that a tragic writer should have some knowlege of geography, which he possesses not; for he sends the son of the Viceroy of Mexico to fight the North-American Indians, whom he supposes to live in Peru, and he brings two of their chieftains, *Ontario* and *Oswega*, prisoners, on the stage, where they talk of killing a black bear, in the woods of Peru!

The writer claims the merit of originality for his North-American Chief, though Gay had already introduced that character in the second part of the Beggar's Opera: but Mr B.'s management of the circumstances is truly original. Nothing resembles it, but Shakspeare's scene of a shipwreck *on the coast of Bohemia.*

Some originality, too, might be claimed for the catastrophe of the heroine, who breaks her neck: but we have dwelt long enough on the beauties of Mr. Birrell's piece, which we shall now dismiss *in vicum vendentem thus et odores;* that is, to the snuff-shop. **Fer.**

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 38. *An Account of Louisiana.* Being an Abstract of Documents delivered in or transmitted to Mr. Jefferson, President of the United States of America; and by him laid before Congress, and published by their Order. Printed at Washington, at Philadelphia, &c. London, reprinted for Hatchard. 8vo. 1s. 6d.

The plan of this publication is 'to consolidate [in a narrow compass] the information respecting the present state of Louisiana, furnished to the Executive by several Individuals among the best informed upon that subject.' The heads of information are, Boundaries; Divisions of the Province; Short, General, and Particular Descriptions of the Country; Inhabitants, their Origin and Number, Militia, and Fortifications; Indian Nations; Lands and Titles; Cultivation of Sugar; Laws; the Church; Officers of Government; Taxes; Expences and Debt; Imports, Exports, Manufactures, and Shipping employed; and a Census taken in the year 1785, with a Statement of the Population, including the Births, Marriages, Deaths, Stock and Productions of the Year 1799.

Of this aggregate of information, (which is comprised in 43 octavo pages) we shall here only transcribe the remarks concerning the Boundaries and Cession.

'No general map of the Province of Louisiana, sufficiently correct to be depended upon, has been published, nor has any been yet promised from a private source.'———'The precise boundaries of Louisiana, westwardly of the Mississippi, though very extensive, are at present involved in some obscurity. Data are equally wanting to assign with precision its northern extent. From the source of the Mississippi, it is bounded eastwardly by the middle of the channel of that river to the thirty-first degree of latitude: thence,

it is asserted upon very strong grounds, that according to its limits, when formerly possessed by France, it stretches to the east, as far, at least, as the river Perdigo, which runs into the bay of Mexico eastward of the river Mobille.

'It may be consistent with the view of these notes to remark, that Louisiana, including the Mobille settlements, was discovered and peopled by the French, whose monarchs made several grants of its trade, in particular to Mr. Crosat in 1712, and some years afterwards, with his acquiescence, to the well-known company projected by Mr. Law. This company was relinquished in the year 1731. By a secret convention on the 3d November 1762, the French government ceded so much of the province as lies beyond the Mississippi, as well as the island of New Orleans, to Spain; and, by the treaty of peace which followed in 1763, the whole territory of France and Spain eastward of the middle of the Mississippi to the Iberville, thence through the middle of that river, and the Lakes Maurepas and Ponchartrain to the sea, was ceded to Great Britain. Spain having conquered the Floridas from Great Britain during our revolutionary war, they were confirmed to her by the treaty of peace of 1783. By the treaty of St. Ildefonso, of the 1st of October 1800, his Catholic Majesty promises and engages on his part to cede back to the French Republic, sixth months after the full and entire execution of the conditions and stipulations therein contained, relative to the Duke of Parma, "the colony or province of Louisiana, with the same extent that it actually has in the hands of Spain, that it had when France possessed it, and such as it ought to be after the treaties subsequently entered into between Spain and other states." This treaty was confirmed and enforced by that of Madrid, of the 21st March 1801.—From France, it passed to us by the treaty of the 30th of April last, with a reference to the above clause, as descriptive of the limits ceded.'

The contents of this pamphlet are interesting to politicians, but principally to those of America.

Capt. B...y.

Art. 39. *The Flowers of Persian Literature:* containing Extracts from the most celebrated Authors in Prose and Verse, with a Translation into English: being a Companion to Sir William Jones's Persian Grammar. To which is prefixed an Essay on the Language and Literature of Persia. By S. Rousseau, Teacher of the Persian Language. 4to. pp. 222. 18s. Boards. Murray and Co.

This work will supply a want that has been long the subject of complaint. The selections are interesting in their nature, are taken from standard authors, and speak highly in favour of the taste and judgment of the compiler. Our connection with the East, which grows daily more and more extensive, enhances the value of publications like the present; since the surest road to preferment in the civil department in India is said to be an acquaintance with the languages current in the country. The student, who is stimulated by his interest as well as by his own desire to attain a knowlege of the pages of Furdoosee, Hafiz, and Sadee, which this writer so highly and justly extols, will here find the attainment of his object made easy, and his path strewed with the choicest flowers.

Jo.

Art.

Art. 40. *Kearsley's Traveller's entertaining Guide through Great Britain*; or a Description of the great Roads and principal Cross Roads; marking the Distances of Places to and from London, and from each other, &c. &c. 2d Edit. 12mo. 7s. Boards. Kearsley.

We recommended this work to the traveller on its first appearance, in Rev. Vol. xxvi. N S. p. 221. It has now received various additions and improvements; and among others, an account of the *great roads of Ireland*, the different *routes to Paris*, a table of the times of high water, &c. G.2.

Art. 41. *The Polyanthea*: or a Collection of interesting Fragments in Prose and Verse: consisting of original Anecdotes, Biographical Sketches, Dialogues, Letters, Characters, &c. &c. 8vo. 2 Vols. 16s Boards. Budd. 1804.

If this species of composition,—the collection, from different sources, of materials for a *Farrago libelli*—be cousidered as indicating little genius in regard to authorship, yet it will be admitted, that it is fully as meritorious and amusing a mode of levying a *literary tax* on the public, as that of numerous novel writers and authors of romance. These two volumes present a fund of *light summer reading*, and will become a welcome addition to the furniture of many public libraries, or watering place reading-rooms. Man.g

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CORRESPONDENCE.

We are requested to announce that the *New Vitruvius Britannicus*, mentioned in our last Number, *is* actually in a state of continuation, that two parts of a second volume have been published, that a third is in preparation, and that five will complete the volume.

Delia reminds us that the object of Mr. Strickland's paper in the American Philosophical Transactions, as reported in our Review for April last, p. 343, was not then suggested for the first time, but was introduced in the Memoirs of the same body for the year 1793. Our Correspondent, however, mistakes in supposing that we were not aware of this circumstance, and will find an account of Mr. Williams's paper in our 15th Vol. p. 574, together with some objections to the theory: but, very contrary to our usual custom, we accidentally omitted, in reviewing Mr. S.'s Memoir, to refer to the similar remarks of his predecessor.

The second letter of *Doctrinæ Fautor* is received; and we have to inform the writer that the publications to which he alludes will be noticed as soon as circumstances permit: but we cannot promise uniform attention to *new editions*, even of the restricted class in question, because our duty would thus be too much enlarged.

We have not heard of *Zoega*'s work. Can our 'Constant Reader' give us farther particulars respecting it?

Cantianus is intitled to our thanks. We have availed ourselves of his information, and propose shortly to discharge our debt.

261, 262,
Errors, pp. 250, 257, 277, 319.